THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

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All issues of The Survey are indexed in the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, to be found in most public and college libraries.

The Gist of It

FORTY of the states still electrocute or hang or shoot or gas their murderers—that is, the relatively small number of them that are caught and indicted and tried and convicted. The death sentence is the cap-stone of the towering edifice of severe punishments which popular opinion seems increasingly to approve. LUTHER SHEELEIGH CRESSMAN writes of it from his chair in the Department of Government and Sociology of the College of the City of New York and against a background of research in sociology both here and abroad. Page 741.

JOHN B. ANDREWS, as secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, is at work in both lean and fat years on the problems of unemployment and heading off the bread-lines. Page 743.

THE article on Mayor Thompson which VICTOR S. YARROS wrote for the Midmonthly of December 15, 1927, aroused such eager interest in the whole plight of Chicago, and particularly of its schools, that we asked him to explore the subject further and in particular to discuss the widespread endorsement of Thompson by public school teachers. Page 745.

SINCE returning from Europe in 1922, PIERCE WILLIAMS has been a member of the staff of the Association of Community Chests and Councils. Page 747.

JOSEPH LEE, writing from the non-community chest city of Boston, takes sharp issue on the chest's position as put forward by William J. Norton in The Survey of November 1, 1927. Mr. Lee is an outstanding example of the layman in social work—most outstandingly as president of the Playground and Recreation Association of America and in the Massachusetts Civic League. Page 749.

RUBEN LEVIN, a roving newspaper man whose home is in Milwaukee, is now on the staff of a paper at Everett, Washington. Page 755.

AS director of the Labor College of Philadelphia, ISRAEL MUFSON was one of the leaders of the conference which he reports. Page 757.

MARY ANDERSON is director of the Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Page 758.

DOROTHY McCONNELL is on the staff of the World Service News. Page 759.

AS psychologist at the Yale Law School, DONALD SLESINGER knows at first hand the results of the conflict of viewpoints he describes. Page 761.

ALTHA LEAH BASS of Evanston, Illinois, has made a wide study of primary and pre-school education. Page 763.

I. S. CALDWELL sends us his description of a Rosenwald School and its teacher from Wrens, Georgia, where he himself holds a teaching position. Page 764.

CONSTANCE MORLEY, assistant secretary of the International Bureau of Education which she describes on page 765, writes us, "The bureau is better known in Europe than in the United States and we feel it most desirable and important that information concerning it and its international aspects be spread in America."

ROBERT W. KELSO, executive secretary of the Boston Council of Social Agencies, suggests a new opening for professional progress in The Private Practice of Social Work. Page 767.

JOSEPH Q. RIZNIK, until recently boys' worker and recreation director of Fellowship House, New York City, is now in Europe for an extended stay. Page 770.

DR. W. W. PETER, writing on both the real and the synthetic brands of sunlight (page 772) is associate secretary of the American Public Health Association and health consultant to the Cleanliness Institute. Special acknowledgment is due to Dr. James E. Ives of the U. S. Public Health Service, W. W. Coblentz of the U. S. Bureau of Standards, and Dr. Alfred Hess, among others, for their interest and aid in reading and checking the article in advance of its publication.

READERS to whom Pauline V. Young introduced Jim's Mother in the Survey of January 15, will welcome this sequel and interpretation of Jim's Own Story (page 777), another product of the study of immigrant communities in Los Angeles conducted by Mrs. Young under the direction of the University of Southern California.

PAUL S. BLISS is publicity secretary of the Community Fund of St. Louis, going there from a similar position in Minneapolis. Page 787.

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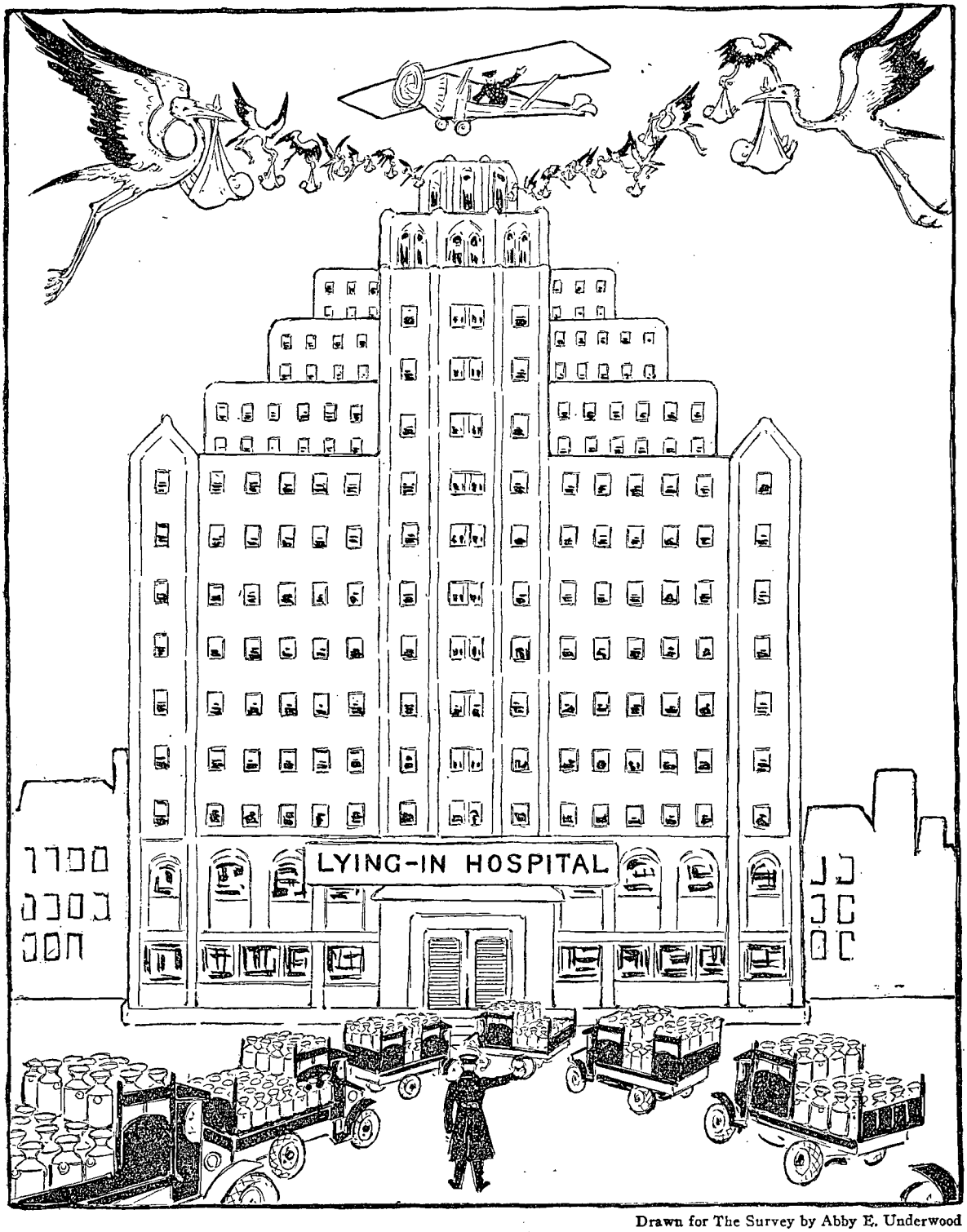

Drawn for The Survey by Abby E. Underwood

"I remember, I remember the house where I was born"

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

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Goblins and Death Cells

By LUTHER SHEELEIGH CRESSMAN

"I PRONOUNCE this person dead." The surgeon ends the gruesome business of justice. The death penalty has been inflicted on some hapless soul. This age-old custom is still observed in all but eight of our states. One hundred and ten persons awaited death at the hands of the state in the early months of 1928 according to a survey made by the United Press. The widespread anguish at the Sacco-Vanzetti executions supported by the wave of revulsion at the sordid details of the Gray-Snyder case have focused country-wide attention on the death penalty —a supposed deterrent to homicide. Bills to abolish the death penalty are now before the legislatures of different states, including three in New York. Their passage seems to be doubtful unless strong popular pressure is brought to bear, for the death penalty and other severe punishments still serve so far as the opinion of the state is concerned as deterrents to crime. Is the state right?

The harrowing details of the death-chamber are held up to millions of people by the lurid style of the star reporter, in the tawdry tabloids with their purported photographs and in the respectable metropolitan dailies—grim warning that the law of Moses is still a living thing. An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth. Kill and you will be killed. Steal and the prison walls will mark your freedom.

The mother crooning a lullaby over her restless child impatiently threatens it with goblins from the dark, until she too almost believes the monsters will come. The state shifts from its crooning lullaby of precept, education and religion to its reserves of horrors, the noose, the chair, the lethal chamber, the firing-squad, the solitary cell, the high gray walls, believing that its restless children will thus grow less restive and sink into a sleep of conformity to society's laws. The "great black oxen tread the world" and under their split hooves mankind still writhes even though cruelty may now be more scientifically applied. After every evidence of failure the world still relies on the psychology of Moses in its attempt to control human behavior. To be sure the number of capital offenses and severe punishments has been reduced as intolerably cruel for our day, but for murder and repeated felonies the state still parades before us the bogies of death and life imprisonment. We still think that the naughty child of the morning will be frightened into goodness by the goblins of the then infinitely distant night. The list of terrors held in reserve by the state has no more controlled the behavior of lawless men than the teeming dark has that of children in the full light of morning.

The basic assumption underlying the traditional theory of deterrence is that man is a rational being who appraises his actions in advance and behaves accordingly. He knows that crime brings punishment. He will therefore refrain from it. If human beings reason before committing crimes then they must also measure the possibility of escaping the penalties. Consider the possibilities of arrest, conviction after arrest, then the possibility of being frightened by the punishment actually inflicted.

"In 1921 arrests were made in 6 per cent of the felonies reported to the police of Rochester; 10 per cent in 1920; 19 per cent in 1919." The relation between larcenies and the resultant arrests, reported by the police of Rochester during the period of 1916-1921, shows that when larcenies increased it was almost purely a matter of chance whether arrests would increase or even decrease. Even in the case of burglaries against members of the American Bankers' Association for the years 1909-1922, where a direct financial interest was involved, the reduction of insurance rates, the criminal had a chance of about 1 in 3 of escaping arrest. The New York State Crime Commission chose for special commendation one aspect of police work saying, "Among the recent developments in criminal investigation, the work which is being done in the recovery of stolen automobiles deserves special mention." About 80 per cent to 90 per cent of the cars reported stolen are recovered, but *arrests* for

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stealing cars in 1925 in Buffalo were only 17.5 per cent and in Rochester 7 per cent.

The figures of the New York Crime Commission for conviction after arrests show that "Of all felony cases originating in arrests in New York City, about 2 per cent are eliminated by the police, 57 per cent in the preliminary hearing, 12 per cent in the grand jury, 8 per cent in the trial court, and 5 per cent after guilt is established." Only 15.42 per cent of those arrested are ever actually imprisoned or fined! For the state as a whole considering only those cases bound over for the grand jury—not those previously eliminated which in New York City is about 60 per cent of all arrests and does not seem to vary much from the upstate situation—38 per cent are actually fined or imprisoned, while in New York City 37 per cent. The most frequent offense in New York is grand larceny and only 34 per cent of those who are bound over for the grand jury are punished. The most severely punished offense in New York is homicide. Of these the state punished in 1925 only 27 per cent of those bound over for the grand jury, New York City 19 per cent, and upstate New York from 44 to 62 per cent. Considering that only half of those arrested—and the arrests are always less than the number of crimes committed—are advanced to the grand jury and of this half at a very generous estimate only 2 out of every 5 are punished, this rational human being by a little simple mental arithmetic can calculate his chances of meeting the goblins. He will hardly be deterred from crime by the four-to-one chance against conviction. Official figures for arrests and convictions make this whole theory of the deterrent influence of severe punishment absurd on the face of it.

IF there is virtue in the deterrence theory the method formerly used in England should have repressed crime by the horrors of public punishment. The corpses of the executed felons were soaked in tar to preserve them longer in the weather, gibbeted and exposed to the public gaze. Executions were public as were the horrors of an execution for treason. The traitor was dragged from the jail to the place of execution. He was suspended by the neck but was cut down before he lost consciousness. Then while still alive the executioner cut out his heart; next he was disembowelled and his entrails thrown on a fire. The body was then quartered and placed at the disposal of the king's pleasure, usually to be exhibited at different points throughout the city as a warning. These executions in all their ghastliness were absolutely free to the public, and one was held as late as the 1740s. This had been the practice for centuries yet it had not prevented treason.

Baring-Gould, the English clergyman, wrote in his reminiscences how mothers were accustomed to take their children to witness executions and then to give them a good thrashing to impress the lesson of the hanging upon their tender minds. Housewives coming home from market across the moors made a practice of throwing bits of tallow to the lonely, tar-encased corpse creaking in its chains, hoping that in some way the tallow might be of help to the miserable soul in purgatory. Hardly were the condemned dead before their fellow criminals in the crowd stepped up to the corpse to get a finger joint or a lock of hair because of the magical power these articles had in opening locks and in bringing good luck.

Hartshorne in his book, Hanging in Chains, tells how a man named Watson was executed about 1780 for the murder of his wife and child. The body was gibbeted in irons at Bradenham Heath. Hartshorne was told by an old woman who was a young girl at the time of the execution that once while crossing the gibbet common she noticed that a starling had built a nest in the man's ribs. "Later some lovers of nature came from Shipdam and stole away the young birds." . . . "In the windows of the waterside taverns at Blackwell, spy glasses or perspective glasses were fixed for the people to enjoy the hangings. Similarly the Greenwich pensioners on the Hill used to exhibit the gibbeted pirates on the opposite bank of the river on the Isle of Dogs through telescopes, and when the bodies were removed by legislative enactment, some of the newspapers of the day made an outcry that the holiday makers were deprived of their amusements."

IN 1852 thousands of people gathered at Northampton to witness the last public execution. They were a painfully disappointed and disorderly crowd when they found the date had been changed. Some of the would-be spectators declared that if they could lay hands on the under-sheriff, "they would let him know what it was to keep honest people in suspense." And one old woman declared loudly that she would claim her expenses from the authorities.

If severe punishment were a deterrent, this sordid experience of the English people certainly should have produced a reduction in crime. But in the long history of English criminal procedure this is not the case.

If these is any deterrent power in punishment, it is in the *certainty of punishment,* and not in its distant and uncertain threat of severity. In England when the penal law was amended to ameliorate the punishment for theft of goods from the person to the value of a shilling, there was a large increase in the number of convictions, because juries could find the accused guilty without violating the dictates of their consciences. Robert Peel in the 30s pointed out that as a result of the amelioration of the penalties for felonies, there had been a great increase in the number of prosecutions and convictions over previous years. It is impossible to say from the evidence that there was a reduction in the volume of crime, though certainly there was no increase, but Peel thought there was a reduction in crimes of violence.

Canada has passed through the same experience. Dominion statistics for the year ending September 30, 1926, presenting data from 1891 show "A gradual increase in the number of convictions. At the same time the gradation of punishment for crime has been toward less severity. The ratios of fines and suspended sentences has steadily increased, and that of sentences to terms of imprisonment has decreased. In 1891 the percentage of fines imposed to total convictions of indictable offenses was 14.4; in 1920, it increased to 30.0; suspended sentences increased from 17 per cent to 35.7 per cent. Gaol sentences decreased from 53 per cent to 25 per cent. Penitentiary terms from two to five years decreased from 7.1 per cent to 1.4 per cent during the period." This same report which shows the amelioration of punishment and the increase of convictions fails to show any increase in recividism for the period, a development to have been expected if the lack of severe laws served as an incentive to crime.

NEW YORK jurists are now agitating to make perjury a misdemeanor instead of a felony as juries will not convict in the present circumstances, since they feel the offense does not warrant the prescribed punishment. The New York Times of January 15, 1928, quotes a report of

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the Baumes Commission as follows: "Today perjury is defined in this state as a felony. . . . We believe that is as it should be. To lessen the punishment for a practice which strikes so heavily at the very foundations of our government and at the very roots of our civilization is to temporize with the Devil." All this in spite of the fact that it was shown at a hearing "That there had not been five convictions for perjury in New York City in ten years, outside of persons who had signed false bail bonds, and that there was a feeling that it was a useless expense to hold men for trial for committing perjury because of the improbability of securing convictions at the hand of present-day juries. While laws were adequate they were not enforced." "To temporize with the Devil." This smacks of the pulpit and not of the laboratory. Compare it, however, with recommendation number 21 of the Baumes Commission which reads: "Make gambling a misdemeanor instead of a felony as juries fail to convict for a greater punishment." This shows that jurists and legislators realize that in respect to those offenses where they need not fear any deep-seated public prejudice favoring a type of punishment they can be frank and honest and state quite simply that they hope to reduce certain kinds of offenses by taming the goblins into pets so that the juries will not be afraid to let the offenders play with them. Those more directly connected with crime have thus admitted that potential, severe punishment is not a deterrent to crime but they believe that sure punishment is. History has always been available for those who will trouble to read it.

Disregarding the hideous influence upon the public of descriptions of executions, made worse than the former public ones by the press today which broadcasts in revolting detail all the horrors that the untrained spectators missed; depending only upon the theory of the rational human being, our present system of punishment for crime is so amazingly ineffective that the rational person need scarcely fear that he will ever meet the publicly paraded goblins, at least not fear them enough to be restrained. On officialdom's dogma of rational human behavior the influence of the goblins in preventing crime can be said to be nil.

Why Are We Idle?

By JOHN B. ANDREWS

WHY have the constructive "standard recommendations" for the prevention of unemployment—reinforced as they were by the President's Unemployment Conference in 1921 under the chairmanship of Secretary Hoover—"gone unheeded for seven fat years"?

Partly, perhaps, because of these relatively fat years. Most people will not think about unemployment unless an emergency exists—and then their attention is centered upon emergency relief, not upon constructive measures of prevention. This negative attitude has been nervously encouraged by one type of business man and his political and editorial echoes, who seem to fear that even to mention a possible future depression during good times will "hurt business"—a psychological twist suggestive of the healthy and prosperous man who refuses to make a will and arrange for life insurance for fear such action will invite sudden death.

Another factor has been the national policy of the administration at Washington not to admit the existence of anything but prosperity. An increase of production, while men were continuously being laid off, provided a plausible basis for this position until long after relief agencies had become alarmed by the excessive burden of unemployment. Commenting on the exceedingly optimistic forecasts issued by prominent government officials, a writer in the New York Times Annalist, says: "There is no particular gain in trying to close one's eyes to large and significant business facts, and it seems to this writer the part of business wisdom to admit the fact of a present recession of considerable magnitude and the necessity of relying upon something more substantial than hope by way of remedy."

In the encouragement of all these influences powerful business organizations have loudly asserted that employers themselves, if let alone, will solve industrial problems. In a period of argument by slogan, they have joyously shouted: "More business in government, and less government in business!" This is notably the attitude of coal operators who defy the U. S. Bureau of Mines within the Department of Commerce. Wholly misleading statements of certain mine operators must not be officially corrected. "Locked within the bureau and in the memory of its engineers, with all the secrecy of the confessional, lie facts that would make bureau bulletins tame reading," states the independent president of one large coal company. Sermons on "non-interference with business" are chickens that come home to roost.

Still another reason why so little progress has been made in the adoption of the constructive program for the mitigation of the evil effects of unemployment is that outstanding citizens—representative of groups of employers, of federations of labor and even some social welfare organizations—have been willing to lend their names, their "moral support," to organizations that have systematically preached the fallacious doctrine that individual employers will voluntarily take care of our social problems.

Thanks largely to organizations that spread the "hands off" propaganda, business America has in truth hurried past the social problem of unemployment although in doing so it has periodically stumbled blindly into costly depressions.

In 1923 the National Industrial Conference Board—a federation of employers' associations—issued a statement to the public declaring there is no need of unemployment insurance legislation in America. Employers, according to this organization, may be trusted to make adequate provisions for their laid-off employes in their own way—"to bear," as it said, "the responsibility of whatever unemployment measures may be adopted, independent of any federal or state legislation." The American Association for Labor Legislation replied through its quarterly Review that it would gladly record the progress of voluntary unemployment insurance as set up by the 300,000 individual employers concerned in the United States. Now, five years later, an independent organization of industrial counsellors with an

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able staff of investigators, has painstakingly searched the country over and has found examples of twelve manufacturing companies with establishment funds organized for the primary purpose of affording unemployment relief. Of the dozen, two have abandoned this provision and the remaining ten through their voluntary schemes have an aggregate of fewer than twelve thousand workers eligible to such unemployment benefits. Approximately 70 per cent of the twelve thousand are employed by two firms. With such a meager showing through "voluntary" action, after five years, is it not clear that universal protection can be secured only through legislation?

WHAT chance has the unemployment compensation bill now in the Massachusetts legislature, in face of persistent propaganda against public action, and with the organized industries of that state already clamoring even for the breakdown of the nine-hour law for women?

Surely the recent half dozen "fat years" have, from the business standpoint, been favorable to the setting up of reserves for the mitigation, as well as measures for the prevention of unemployment.

During these years there has been in fact even less excuse for failure to take preventive measures than in previous periods of prosperity. While industry is producing more and more goods it is doing this with fewer and fewer workers. To the earlier terms "seasonal" and "cyclical," is now added "technological" unemployment. Business and political leaders have been made aware repeatedly of this new trend—increasing unemployment in the midst of a boom—as a result of recent remarkable improvement in management methods and development of labor-saving machinery. But little has been done to combat it. Surely, this time, the old alibi "everybody is at work" has not stood.

Even now conditions are not so serious as to preclude application of known remedies, some of which are widely accepted in principle, and endorsed unanimously by President Harding's national Conference on Unemployment in 1921. This was a conference largely composed of business men. It urged *increased appropriations for the federal employment service* and endorsed the *long-range planning of public works*, in principle, but with support which has not been effective.

The conference, with Secretary of Commerce Hoover as chairman and Secretary of Labor Davis as a member, found the United States Employment Service "crippled by lack of funds," and urged an appropriation of $400,000. But the appropriation today is only half that amount—a decrease from the funds available in 1921.

THROUGHOUT the country the public employment service has not only been starved through inadequate appropriations but has sometimes been under the direction of political incompetents. Despite this there has been some progress. By constant prodding, state laws have been amended little by little and new acts have been adopted until it is now possible to look back over the past seven years and measure gradual progress. The public employment offices which numbered 175 in thirty-five states in 1921—a drop from the maximum of about 850 in early 1919—have now grown again to more than 200 in forty states and the District of Columbia. Meanwhile regulation of private fee-charging agencies has been somewhat strengthened.

Encouraged by the constant preaching of *laissez faire*, however, the managers of private fee-charging employment agencies have organized themselves and raised a national fund to try and break down such state laws as now regulate their activities. They have carried their test case to the United States Supreme Court where they hope an early decision will free them from "interference," and thus leave their well-known abuses unchecked.

The long-range planning of public works—in order that the government may more intelligently expand construction activities at times when private industry is slack, and thus stimulate the use of both materials and men—has been barely kept alive as an issue, and this largely through the public-spirited activity of Otto T. Mallery, chairman of the Association for Labor Legislation standing Committee on Public Works. Governor Alfred E. Smith, of New York, under social worker guidance, by prompt announcement has recently achieved country-wide notice for speeding up public work when the emergency is upon us, but during earlier years of his governorship he and his immediate advisers could see in the principle of advance planning nothing worthy of adoption by the state.

THE most interesting proposal, now pending in Congress, is the Jones bill for a "prosperity reserve." It would authorize the appropriation of $150,000,000 for public works, including rural post roads, river and harbor improvements, flood control and public buildings outside the District of Columbia. Work under this appropriation is to be undertaken only when it is apparent that a marked decrease of employment is under way in the construction industry of the United States. Adoption of this "prosperity reserve" by the federal government would be of further help by stimulating the creation of similar "prosperity reserves" by states and cities. To date California and Wisconsin are the only states that have special legislative provision for such administrative foresight.

The policy of expanding public works programs to check unemployment is far-reaching in its effects. It not only provides jobs for men directly engaged on such works but it also in a very wide sense "takes up the slack" in industry by stimulating the production of all materials needed on the public works—cement, machinery, iron and steel, lumber, brick, stone, asphalt and so on. At least twenty-seven other industries are dependent for a good part of their prosperity upon public works construction.

It is expected that public hearings on the Jones "prosperity reserve" measure (S. 2475) will be held shortly before the Senate Committee on Commerce of which Senator Wesley Jones is chairman. It is an outstanding national opportunity for interested citizens to express their belief in the principle and to urge their legislative representatives at Washington to take at least this one preparatory step at once. While production of goods continues, prepare against unemployment. In the fat years, think also of the lean.

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Mr. McAndrew and the Teachers

By VICTOR S. YARROS

IT appears that the present writer's article in The Survey of December 15 on the public-school-library scandals under the tragi-comic administration of Big Bill Thompson, peculiar mayor of Chicago, led certain impartial by-standers to ask natural questions concerning the attitude of the teaching force in the city's school system toward the suspended superintendent. The Teachers' Federation, a powerful organization, has preserved a dense and unbroken silence on the whole controversy between the Thompson majority on the board of education and Mr. McAndrew. Fifty or sixty members of the teaching force, including some district superintendents and principals, took the witness stand at the farce called the McAndrew trial and made—with every manifestation of deep and strong feeling, and in violent, vituperative terms—serious charges against the superintendent, accusing him of tyranny, of arrogance, of willful dishonesty, of egotism, of total and reckless disregard of the rights and claims of teachers, as well as of the physical and moral welfare of the pupils.

Now, if these witnesses told the truth, it follows that Mr. McAndrew is not the brave, fearless, consistent champion of democracy, integrity, efficiency and good faith which many of his supporters believe him to be, and the opposition to him was not without basis of merit.

Again, it has been asserted that fully nine-tenths of the teachers in the Chicago public-school system voted for Big Bill and not for Mayor Dever, at the April municipal election, because of their dislike of Mr. McAndrew and their ardent desire to get rid of him—be the means what they might.

What are the facts, and what is the truth as regards Mr. McAndrew and the relations between him and the teaching force he directed and ruled as superintendent?

These queries are easier to put than to answer, but the present writer thinks he is in a position to answer them impartially and correctly.

That nine-tenths of the Chicago teachers voted for Thompson and regarded Mr. McAndrew as one of the major issues of the election, is probably true, though, of course, not scientifically verifiable. The writer himself knows scores of teachers; he has addressed them at settlement meetings and in classes, and has every reason to believe that their attitude was typical rather than exceptional. He knew in April that most of the teachers would vote against Dever in the hope that Thompson, if elected mayor, would dismiss McAndrew, his pet aversion, and undo the latter's work.

But he also knew that the teachers were wrong, *on the whole,* and that Mr. McAndrew was right, despite one serious and unnecessary mistake which he made shortly after his election to the superintendency. Human nature being what it is, that one mistake made the superintendent many enemies among those who should and would have been his staunch friends.

It is well, perhaps, to deal with that mistake at this point in the narrative.

Chicago, under the leadership of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of schools under Mayor Carter H. Harrison, organized "Teachers' Councils." The idea behind these councils was sound and progressive. It was desired to secure the maximum of cooperation and amity between the superintendent's office and the teaching force, as well as to give the latter a stake in the school system other than the financial stake they already had. It was thought that discussion of the variety and multiplicity of school problems by teachers at free, democratic meetings of teachers would yield valuable and constructive suggestions in respect of the curriculum, improvement of teaching standards, elimination of unfit teachers, improvement of the relations—long unsatisfactory—between class-room and superintendent's office, ways of lessening truancy and overcoming pupils' indifference to certain courses, and a hundred other complex and important questions.

The Teachers' Councils became very dear to the teachers. The general public, however, knew little of the work done by the councils.

When Mr. McAndrew became superintendent and, after a long absence from Chicago, began to study the conditions and affairs of the school system, he found divergent opinions regarding the councils. Some thought them valuable, and others useless. Some said the teachers at the meetings discussed nothing but their own pay and never contributed an idea of consequence to the educational department of the system. Others claimed that the records and minutes of the meetings proved the fine, progressive, constructive character and spirit of the councils. As in so many other public disputes, this not unimportant question of *fact* was never settled; issues became confused, personalities eclipsed matters of principle, and assertions and counter-assertions were never verified by impartial and competent examination.

AT any rate, Mr. McAndrew offered two objections to the councils—first, that they held meetings (eight a year) in school time, and that classes were dismissed early in order to enable the teachers to attend the meetings; second, that the councils seemed to have been managed and conducted *against* something or somebody—against the central office, for example, or against the superintendent and his assistants. Mr. McAndrew approved of the essential purpose of the councils, and of the democratic spirit that had suggested them, but he proposed to reorganize them and to provide for representation on them of the elements excluded—the principals, the district superintendents, the assistant superintendents. He thought that both teachers and schools would be benefited by the adoption of the principle of cooperation in lieu of that of tacit conflict. He took the view that there were no reasons for assuming antagonism between teachers and the central office, and that mutual confidence in theory as a basis would develop mutual confidence in practice.

However, this proposal for the reconstruction of the councils never received much consideration. It was almost instantly overshadowed and thrust aside by bitter controversy

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over the demand of Mr. McAndrew that the meetings be held after school hours—in the evening, or on Saturday morning. He argued that it was unjust to taxpayers and to the mothers of the school children to dismiss the classes eight times during the school year in order to hold council meetings. He furnished evidence to show that the meetings cost the community several hundred thousand dollars and the mothers much anxiety and worry. He stated that he had many letters from mothers commending his opposition to the feature in question and saying that they did not know what to do with the released children during the extra hours, unforeseen and unprovided for.

THE Teachers' Federation, or its energetic and shrewd business agent, Miss Margaret Haley—who, by the way, had welcomed Mr. McAndrew's election because of his record in New York, his educational ideas as expounded in periodicals and speeches—and the teachers themselves, no sooner learned of the issue as defined by the superintendent than they declared war against him. They saw no merit in his proposals. They wanted all or nothing in the matter of the councils. Meetings after school hours or on Saturdays, they said, would not be well attended; the councils would decay and die; Mr. McAndrew wanted to destroy them, and his reforms were mere subterfuges and smoke screens.

The press took the McAndrew view; the business interests and some civic and commercial organizations followed suit; opponents of the Chicago Teachers' Federation —and it has always had very severe critics and determined foes—perceived in the fight and issue a splendid opportunity of hitting the hated "trade-union" organization of the school teachers.

The struggle raged for weeks or months. It ended in the disappearance of the councils and in a complete victory for Mr. McAndrew. But—that victory meant the loss of the confidence and support of several thousand teachers, not all of whom were unmindful of the excellent plans and ideas of the superintendent, or of his fearless and effective stand against pull, intrigue, spoils and politics in the schools.

Now, to be frank, Mr. McAndrew was at once right and wrong in this fight. He had logic on his side, but not everything that is logical is expedient. What he said about the councils was largely true, but the matter was not urgent and he might have postponed the contest. He had many other, more vital tasks awaiting him. He was, as he knew, surrounded by fault-finders, doubters and critics; he knew that politicians and aldermen would seize with keen avidity upon any mistake he might make; he knew that he had been brought to Chicago to clean up the school system, to get rid of evils and abuses of long standing, to introduce method and efficiency into the schools, and that the most valuable of his assets or weapons was the faith and sympathy of the teachers. To alienate them on a relatively minor issue was to court failure in respect of major issues.

Perhaps, however, the school councils issue might not have resisted all accommodation and compromise had not some of Mr. McAndrew's general ideas and policies, as they developed, aroused much strenuous opposition among many of the teachers.

These ideas and policies cannot be fully discussed here. It was impossible not to sympathize with Mr. McAndrew when he demanded better teaching, increased efficiency, more vigilance and industry on the part of principals, closer cooperation between principal and teacher, the use of brains in the schools. The Chicago public schools had long suffered from inertia, weakness and timidity in the central office, from political interference, general slackness and excessive decentralization. Mr. McAndrew was needed in Chicago to tighten up the whole educational machinery, to revivify the schools, to improve the work done in them and to inaugurate certain major reforms. Had he been infinitely more tactful than he was, he would still have made many enemies. But he tackled his job with a vigor and single-mindedness that took the breath away in many instances. He was misunderstood and misinterpreted to boot. The indolent, perfunctory, incompetent teacher or principal naturally became a foe of the superintendent.

It would, however, be a mistake to suppose that only the incompetent, the lazy, the reactionary elements of the teaching force became restive and discontented with the superintendent's policies. Some of his critics had a sort of doctrine or even philosophy of their own in opposition to his. It should be borne in mind that in Chicago the principle of decentralization prevailed in the public schools, while in New York centralization was the recognized principle. Here was a true and deep conflict of fundamentals. Many said that Mr. McAndrew, because of his training and experience in New York, could not do justice to the Chicago teachers and failed to comprehend their point of view. They wanted *democracy*, while he stood for *autocracy* in their eyes. What he regarded as proper discipline they regarded as tyranny; what he deemed essential to harmony they complained of as arbitrary curtailment of proper and wholesome privileges.

The truth is that excessive decentralization resulted in an amazing variety of standards in the Chicago schools. There were excellent schools, ably and earnestly managed by competent and zealous principals. There were tolerably adequate schools under tolerably efficient principals. And there were many hopelessly inferior schools under unfit principals.

THERE is a conviction in Chicago that New York carries centralization too far, as Chicago admittedly carried decentralization and *laissez-faire* too far. Mr. McAndrew believed in centralization and, moreover, he knew when he accepted the Chicago offer that the law was on his side. The so-called Otis School Act had indeed been enacted by the Illinois legislature at the instance of educators and thoughtful, independent citizens who favored centralization and a strong head for the educational department of the Chicago school system.

There is not a scintilla of evidence that Mr. McAndrew abused or stretched the authority lodged in his office by that progressive school law. He was superintendent in fact as well as in law. He was at no time guilty of "insubordination," but he insisted on exercising the powers vested in him and on applying his, not any other person's, ideas in every field intrusted to him in which he was entitled to take the initiative or to correct old and intrenched evils.

Honest differences of opinion were inevitable in the situation that was created by his appointment. There were many in the system who expected the superintendent to take their advice, yield to his subordinates, make certain concessions to custom and tradition, or for the sake of peace and harmony. These were disappointed, but they have failed to point out a single really important or willful abuse by Mr. McAndrew of his (*Continued on page* 786)

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The Chest and the Layman

By PIERCE WILLIAMS

THE American business man has time for social work. At least that is the conclusion drawn at the Citizens Conference on Community Welfare, held in Washington February 20-21. Some two hundred and fifty "laymen" from ninety cities attended. Chest executives to the number of sixty-five and a scattering of executives from national social work organizations also came, but the conference as conceived and worked out by the representative National Citizens' Committee was primarily a laymen's "party." It was marked by a spirit of leisurely, unimpassioned discussion. No great social crisis brought them together. They came with no intention of "highly resolving"—in fact, formal resolutions were proscribed. The aim was to let representative laymen know that there were community chest problems to be solved, some of them antedating the chests, others made more acute by the growth of the chests; and that the interest and intelligence of others than technicians in social work were needed to solve them.

In character, the gathering was unique. The following are just a few listed: William Cooper Procter, head of the great Ivory Soap company; John Lord O'Brian, Buffalo lawyer and a director of the Equitable Life Assurance Society; Henry D. Sharpe, of Providence, head of the Brown and Sharpe Company; Paul A. Schoelkopf, a leading figure in the Niagara Power Company; Samuel Mather, of Cleveland, director in many great business concerns, among them United States Steel; J. Herbert Case, of the New York Federal Reserve Bank; Felix M. Warburg, of the international banking firm of Kuhn, Loeb and Company; Charles A. Stillman, vice president of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company of Akron, Ohio. While relatively few of the delegates were nationally known, they were quite evidently men of substance and influence in their communities—the type of men who are directing the activities of large business enterprises. Most of them, however, were men who had reached the stage where they expect to be called upon for the leadership that inheres in wise counsel rather than in aggressive, personal action.

The atmosphere of professional work was conspicuously absent, this notwithstanding the fact that formal addresses were delivered by persons widely known for their official or semi-official connection with welfare work in one form or another: Herbert Hoover, cabinet officer and federal administrator; President W. H. P. Faunce, of Brown University, educational administrator; Newton D. Baker, now in private law practice in Cleveland, but nationally known as a municipal administrator and a member of President Wilson's cabinet; C. M. Bookman, executive secretary of the Cincinnati Community Chest and president of the A.C.C.C.; Louis Marshall, leader of the bar and prominent in Jewish federation work.

But the addresses were not the significant feature of the conference. In tone, they were the sort of addresses, excellent and stirring, one hears sometimes at a national conference of social work. The distinctive thing was that for practically the first time they were being listened to by representative American men and women identified with social work only as volunteers. Mr. Bookman's address was a masterly analysis of the essentials of the community chest idea, an unflinching admission of defects and a recognition of problems still to be solved. To most of the laymen he gave reassurance of their own confidence in the community chest and held up a sign-post pointing roads to be followed for better community service. Secretary Hoover, who followed Bookman, limited himself to endorsing the community chest idea and emphasizing the need for community chests tackling seriously two outstanding problems: one, a satisfactory correlation of effort between chests and the disaster relief appeals of the national Red Cross; two, a steady strengthening of public administration of welfare work, particularly in the field of health. Mr. Marshall stressed the importance of generous giving on the part of the wealthy as an indispensable factor in leadership for community welfare. President Faunce optimistically called attention to the community-mindedness which has replaced the individualism of his own college days. Mr. Baker's emphasis was on the necessity for finding mutually effective roles for government and voluntary organizations to play in the promotion of human welfare.

IT was on the second day of the conference in the eight group sessions that laymen got their chance and they took it, appreciating, doubtless, that here was a gathering in which the lay volunteer was at last to have the floor. The professional social workers loyally obeyed the suggestion that the layman be given the chance to get off anything that was on his chest. Each of the eight group conferences was asked to discuss an assigned topic. A committee of laymen, with a community chest executive as secretary (in all but one case) had previously been made responsible for preparing in advance an outline of the discussion. Following the two-hour discussion of each topic, a brief summary report suggesting lines of further study was drafted by the chairman and secretary and read at the closing session.

Only two of the topics, it is worth remarking, related specifically to community chest technique. These two had to do with the money-raising campaign and with chest educational publicity. However, it was not how to say it that was discussed in the latter group, but whether we yet know what it is we want to say. Likewise, in the first mentioned group, it was not the mechanics of the chest campaign but the dynamics of it that received consideration; not how do you run a campaign, but how do you get the leaders in the community to run the campaign.

If any unity of point of view appeared to develop in the Washington conference it was in the discussion of how to find the most satisfactory division of responsibility for welfare work between municipal and voluntary organizations. While it is true that Secretary Hoover's address the night before had given the weight of his authority to the principle that public health should be the concern of government, the laymen gave every indication of speaking out of their own local experience. One might have expected them

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to shy off from any proposal to extend the activity of politically dominated agencies further in the field of public welfare than they go at present. On the contrary, however, the laymen at the conference talked as if they believed that public administration could be improved, if the right principles of organization were applied and a cooperative spirit shown by those primarily interested in voluntary agencies. Or, perhaps, these laymen were not so conscious of the superiority of the privately administered charity as some social workers are.

Detroit, where the family relief job is administered entirely by the municipal department, challenged Cleveland, where all family relief is taken care of by voluntary agencies, to a study to determine the relative efficacy of the two systems.

As to which voluntary organizations ought to be in community chests, no conclusions were arrived at. The variety in practice from one city to another was illustrated by a summary prepared by the committee. That certain types of organization are almost universally in chests, and that certain other types are almost universally out of them, was not taken by this group as the last word on the subject. They seemed interested rather in finding out the effect which varying degrees of "inclusiveness" had on the community welfare job.

Those social workers who fear possible concentration of community chest attention on money-raising to the exclusion of human service would have been reassured by these group discussions. Apparently these laymen had long ago grasped the idea that the annual operating deficit which the chest raises is only part of the picture. One sensed their feeling of confidence that this portion of the financial support could be readily found, and that the real problem was to build firm foundations of fact and popular understanding under the whole welfare structure in the community. That permanent funds (endowments) must supply part of the funds for community welfare, and that scientific research must be relied on to bring out the facts of sickness, poverty and delinquency, seemed to be taken for granted, judging from the discussion in the group conferences that handled those two topics.

To that man in the street whom the professional is so rightly concerned with reaching, the conference might possibly have seemed to have a slightly academic tinge; if not academic, then at least of restricted interest to the average man. One must say that the topics concerned only those laymen who were connected with community chests. And to come nearer home, members of boards of social agencies in New York, Chicago, Boston and Pittsburgh are not compelled to think about the problems the Washington conference considered.

THERE was one topic, however, which I think gives the key to the success of the Washington conference. That particular topic supplies the link which ties organized social work to the going, day-by-day business of these United States. That topic was, The Relationship of National Business Corporations to Community Welfare. The conference was asked to help answer the question: Have business corporations any responsibility for supporting community welfare work? The question arises out of the difficulty community chests are encountering in getting the great nation-wide business concerns of the country (whose headquarters are usually not in a chest city) to contribute towards the financial support of local community work. For the corporation, the problem is not simple. How shall a concern with factories in twenty cities, branch warehouses in fifty and sales offices in one hundred, decide just how much it ought to contribute to the community chests in three hundred cities? No one pretended to have an answer, but the good will manifested promised that an answer satisfactory to those whose chief concern is welfare work and those who must administer our great corporations, will be found. The Washington conference showed in fact that these two groups are potentially if not actually one. This was amusingly illustrated by the dilemma of one layman who, after voicing with convincing clarity and candor his conviction that corporate businesses were morally bound to contribute to three hundred community chests in as many cities, suddenly said, half to himself, "Good Heavens, I'm a director of the A. B. Manufacturing Company," a concern with business in every corner of the country. He was as amused at his discovery as were his auditors, and just as certain that his dilemma would not prove embarrassing.

WHY was this first laymen's conference such a success? Because it was built around the idea that community welfare in the United States is now a national, rather than a local problem. The great corporations operate on the theory the whole United States is their "community." They must plan their production, distribution, and finance on a nation-wide scale.

For organized social work likewise, the community is gradually becoming the country. No American community has problems peculiar to itself any more. Isolation is gone. Some of the welfare problems of Chattanooga, Tennessee, can be traced directly to the automobile industry in Detroit. In the decades preceding the War, American social work was organized in small groups. One group interested itself in family relief, another in child welfare, another in hospital work, another in the Y. M. C. A., and so on. When these groups—hang-overs of the early individualism of our people—merged into the community, the community chest came into being as the only instrument capable of drawing charitable funds from every one in the community. The community chest, as an agency of finance and administration, will keep its local community character. But more and more, the activities of the specialized social agencies press beyond the local community and impinge on similar activities in communities thousands of miles away. The great industrial corporation is the organ through which the genius of the American people expresses itself on the economic and productive side. The community chest is the organ through which that genius expresses itself on the altruistic and humanitarian side.

Many of the problems with which social welfare organizations are trying to cope are an undesirable by-product of our nationally organized industrialism. Solutions for these problems will be found by relating community welfare work to this other expression of our national genius. The technique for this working partnership is still to be found, but the force needed to solve our community welfare problems will be found in the increasing leisure made possible by our unique industrial organization. Many of those who have provided the leadership for industrial enterprises have gained not only great wealth, but what is more important, leisure. For two days in Washington in February, a few of them turned that leisure into time to consider problems of the common welfare. And that is a most encouraging sign.

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The Chest and Social Work

By JOSEPH LEE

IN his article Social Work Grows Up in Survey Graphic for November, William J. Norton says that the significant aspect of the community chest, dominating all other considerations, is the passing of the control of the destiny of social work from the few choice spirits who created and lovingly fostered it to the great and merciless democracy.

The first part of the statement is true. The community chest, where it has been adopted, has meant the passing of the control of social work from those who had the vision to create and the persistent purpose to continue it, into other hands.

It is not true, however, that under the chest system social work has been brought into the control of democracy. As Mr. Norton says, there is no community chest where the members of the managing board are chosen by public suffrage although in a number of cases a minority is chosen by the contributors. The chest is, he says, "self-elected to stand between the public and its newly adopted institution" —to stand, that is to say, between the public and the control of social work. As the members of the chest are largely business men (in many instances chests have been started by the chambers of commerce) plutocracy would seem to be its proper classification.

Mr. Norton seems to base his claim of democratic control of the chest upon its possession of a wider basis of support. There is, he says, under the chest an average of one giver to every eight persons in the population. But that statement requires analysis when considered as evidence of a democratic basis.

As regards large givers, the proportion to the total population in any community of those who give half of the money raised is about the same in chest cities as in those which have not adopted the chest—apparently somewhat larger in the latter group. The number of large givers has not been increased. What has been notably increased is the number of the comparatively poor from whom money is obtained—the chest reaches, as Mr. Norton says, "to the pay envelope of the poorest workman." This increase is brought about largely by raising money from the children in the schools and from the working people through their employers. Raising money in the schools is forbidden in Boston except for the Red Cross. It should be absolutely forbidden everywhere, for it means a hold-up. However the method of solicitation may be guarded, the pressure upon the poorest child to do what the rest are doing is practically unavoidable.

The same objection applies to raising money from workers in stores and factories through their employers. There is much competition in chest cities between business establishments to show the largest percentage of contributors, those reaching 100 per cent receiving highest praise. How under that system does it fare with the employe in any shop or factory or in any department or room within the same, who holds out and spoils the record? This also is a hold-up and a tax. There may be many who pay it willingly, but the element of free choice which is the essence of giving is excluded.

These two sources of income represent not gifts but forced contributions. Such levies should never be resorted to in time of peace. In our hunt for contributions to our charities the children's savings and the pay envelope are not fair game.

Apart from these drafted contributors it has not, I think, been demonstrated that the basis of donation in chest cities is materially larger than in those without the chest. The number of real givers indeed has probably decreased. As a citizen in a chest city has written: "I now pay two taxes, one to the city and one to the chest, and have ceased my giving altogether."

The community chest resembles democracy in that under it the people pay a tax. But there is taxation under all forms of government. Democracy consists in the people's control of the expenditure, directly or through their representatives. Control by business men and representatives of existing social agencies is something different. Taxation without representation best describes it.

If democratic control is really desired in our social work that result can readily be attained by handing it over to the regularly constituted city governments. If that were done the result would probably be a more wasteful administration and a more liberal and enterprising policy. Playgrounds on a large scale which were started in Boston by two democratic mayors—Josiah Quincy and John F. Fitzgerald—might, for instance, have waited a long time if we had had a chest in Boston and its assent had been necessary either to the final and decisive step or to the preliminary demonstration.

THE chest, then, means taking the control of social work from those who created and have fostered it, and entrusting that control not to democracy but to those who largely represent the business point of view. The introduction of business methods through business control has indeed been among the advantages most often cited by those who advocate the chest.

Has this change represented gain or loss? Mr. Norton says, in substance, of those who were in charge of the social agencies before the coming of the chest (and I suppose the same applies to those who are still in charge in cities where the chest has not been introduced) that they lacked any large or public or even social point of view. He says of the social agencies under such control that "each was non-social in administration," that "it was governed by a few devoted individuals who gave little or no thought to the larger aspects of their responsibility to the public." "The social philosophy of the country was," he says, "epitomized in that famous phrase, 'The public be damned.'" This is the first intimation I have ever seen that William H. Vanderbilt, from whose alleged utterance the phrase is quoted, was a social worker or among those prominently identified with social work. He was, if memory serves, a business man, one of the class to whom under the chest system the practical control of social work is handed over.

Apart from this quotation from Mr. Vanderbilt, it is not apparent from what source Mr. Norton derives his in-

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formation as to the lack of public spirit among those who created and have carried on our social agencies. Referring to my own experience, I remember that John Moors, now president of the Family Welfare Society of Boston and for forty years a worker in the ranks, is the man who organized the Boston Public School Association, an organization largely carried on by officers and workers in the St. Vincent De Paul and other charities, which has elected a majority of the School Committee of Boston now for a quarter of a century. Mr. Moors, besides a hundred other instances of public service, has served the Red Cross in Salem and Chelsea, Massachusetts, and in San Francisco. It was Mr. Moors' predecessor as president of the Family Welfare Society, Dr. Charles P. Putnam, whose participation was decisive in the starting of the Massachusetts Civic League, which has done as much as any organization to improve social and educational legislation in this commonwealth and which started the present playground movement. Dr. Putnam also served for many years as chairman of the Trustees of Children's Institutions of the City of Boston. The predecessor of Charles Putnam and first president of the society, Robert Treat Paine, started Wells Memorial, the Paine Memorial and the Workingmen's Loan Association and powerfully assisted many other institutions of a wide usefulness and public character. Robert A. Woods was another of our social workers. He was also our hardest fighter and most effective citizen in the improvement of social and political affairs.

Looking over the list of those who in this city have been prominent in such matters—the group that one relies upon in any public enterprise—the proportion within that group of those who have also carried on our social and charitable agencies is very large. I am aware of no reason for supposing that the case is different elsewhere. Certainly Mrs. Charles Russell Lowell, who started the Charity Organization Society in New York, was not a person lacking in political and social vision, nor does The Survey which has its roots in social work, represent a narrow or unsocial point of view. To say of a group of people, of whose purpose and attitude the cases I have cited are representative, that their motto was "the public be damned" is an extraordinary perversion of the facts.

IN further characterization of social workers and their methods Mr. Norton speaks of "waste of money, waste of time, waste of energy," of the "freebooting emotionalist" and of many having been "mired in a morass of red tape and terminology." Here again it is not stated upon what researches Mr. Norton bases his conclusions, but I do not think that those who have taken part in social work or known anything of it at first hand will think them just.

As to emotionalism, it is certainly not a characteristic of social workers as a class. It is persons unfamiliar with the actual problems of the poor and the unfortunate who are especially susceptible to an emotional appeal. Sob stuff has indeed, to the dismay of the social workers, been characteristic of the appeals made by the chests, although they are improving in this respect.

Of the public and social vision of business men as compared with that of the creators and leaders of our social work, it is difficult to judge. It is my belief that our business men are as a class far more social-minded than the public has as yet begun to realize. The William H. Vanderbilt of legend no longer represents the type. Many of them are themselves members of that small group by whom our social work has been built up. And yet I think it may be questioned whether our business men, taken as a class, can understand the aims and established principles of social work—aims and principles of a nature very different from those in the service of which they have been trained—as well as can those who have pursued these aims for many years and have themselves worked out these principles.

ON the other hand, there is often great value in an outside point of view, especially the point of view of men who have succeeded in their own chosen line. Probably the best system for the control of social work is one under which the business men and the charitably-minded work together, or where these two characters are combined. Such a system was that which generally prevailed before the advent of the chest, the system under which the board of directors of each agency had full responsibility for its support, determined its policies according to their own best judgment and fully controlled the details of its management. Under that system the position of director, with its opportunity for initiative and constructive effort, was naturally attractive to men of practical ability and to men of vision.

Under the chest system, on the other hand, the position of a member of the governing board of any social agency is very different. The function of the chest, as Mr. Norton has pointed out, includes the control of budgets, the standardization of salaries, the reorganization of boards of directors and staffs of workers, the combining of agencies and positions, the elimination of duplication and the weeding out of useless organizations. Whether the average business man will care to become or to remain a director of an agency of which the income is fixed, the scope defined and the details of management controlled by an outside body—to say nothing of the exercise by such outside body of the power of life and death—is still a question.

As to the participation in social work of those business men who themselves serve upon the chest committees it must, with a few exceptions, be comparatively slight. The conduct of the annual money-raising campaign must necessarily absorb a considerable portion of the time that they can afford to give. How fully the average member of such a committee can in the remaining hours which he is able to devote to its affairs make himself master of the various aims and problems of the dozens or hundreds of agencies under its control is problematical. It is the common experience that it takes a year or two for a new director of a social agency to understand its work sufficiently to be of great value in its management. To understand the work of many agencies of greatly varying aims and methods would of course require a much longer period. To arrive at such an understanding at first hand is a task that no busy man can undertake. For that purpose he must rely very largely upon the chest executive, while this executive himself can, in a large city, give upon the average very little time to studying the problems of each of the agencies with which it will be his business to deal.

So that while the chest will give to business men practically complete control over the social and charitable work of each community it will in its nature tend to discourage them from the sort (*Continued on page* 792)

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The Common Welfare

A KEY TO A GREATER CITY

As large as the state of Connecticut, with more people than any state in the union except its own, the New York region represents one top peak in humanity's efforts to huddle together in one little strip of land which must serve at once for work, play and all the other functions of this life of ten million people. In and out of its nucleus, the nib of Manhattan below Fifty-ninth Street, nearly three million of these travel every day. The whole spider-web of roads that lead to this Rome—literally thousands of miles of streets, tunnels, bridges, wharves, subways and railways, as well as the towers they encompass, is rebuilding and replanning itself year after year, involving the spending of colossal fortunes. How can this protean growth be so guarded and directed as to keep so unwieldy an aggregation of human activities from frustrating itself and falling apart by reason of its own weight?

In a dozen volumes embodying the results of five years' study, the Regional Plan of New York is setting forth the problems established by its research and the answers they suggest. Its first volume, Major Economic Factors in Metropolitan Growth and Arrangement, by Robert Murray Haig and Roswell C. McCrea, has just come from the press, and before the end of this year it is proposed to publish the nine other volumes incorporating the fact-finding program of the study, and the two final volumes giving in text, map and diagram the plan itself developed as the result of these surveys of population and land values, traffic and transportation, industrial areas, public recreation, city sunlight, public services, sanitation, and the like.

In a preface to the series, Thomas D. Adams, general director of plans and surveys, points out the objective underlying this most comprehensive study of urban living, and some of the conditions it faced. The former he defines in the words of Robert W. de Forest, president of the Russell Sage Foundation, which financed the Regional Plan, as that "which makes the city a better place to live in and a better place to work in." Yet no city planner, he believes, can build a city. "The American city must be planned in accordance with the special degree to which it is and may continue to be a center of highly organized and standardized production, in harmony with the unique character of the economic factors that control its policies, and in keeping with its powerful traditions of individualism and its own patterns of local government." City planning aims to fix a certain legal framework on land by means of zoning regulations and the like:

But restraints must be limited in this country to the things which are essential to human health, safety and well-being.... The modern city is the world that the citizens have chosen to build. To improve it, where it needs improvement, it is they who must choose the method and means of achievement. The basis of any method is voluntary cooperation, but there must be leadership. Sound leadership depends primarily on the recognition by those who lead that all human interests are harmonious and that the culture and enduring qualities of man are both the means and the end of wealth. It depends also on knowledge of the causes, effects and trends of present evils of urban growth and of the methods necessary to prevent the recurrence of these evils. Here is where the main difficulty arises, for who among the leaders of public opinion, the scientists, and the artists of today have certain knowledge of the underlying causes and of the way out of the impasse towards which the great cities like New York seem to be drifting?

It is such a body of knowledge, collected, classified and evaluated by experts, that the plan offers, a contribution toward the scientific understanding of both the tangible and intangible realities of city living. The committee has no power to enforce adoption of any part of it. It can be useful only as the public itself can be led to understand and accept it, now, or in the future, with such modifications as the constant shift of the city itself inevitably will necessitate. Even with the 20,000,000 population which may be anticipated by 1965—the date chosen as that toward which the committee should look forward—Mr. Adams feels that there is ample room in the New York region for well-balanced development if it is coordinated. Here, in twelve volumes, lies one key to a greater city, forged by voluntary effort, without political bias. There remains the problem of inducing Father Knickerbocker to take it and use it, insofar as proves practicable, to unlock and dissipate the pandemonium which is New York.

MINISTERS, WOMEN—AND MONEY

It is the exceptional clergyman who escapes being swindled in the course of his ministry, the Chicago Theological Seminary of the Congregational Church declares, after a study of replies sent in from more than a score of states to a questionnaire on experience with professional crooks. The amounts lost varied from a five-dollar bill to the savings of a lifetime, while the swindles fell into three classes: oil and mining stocks, dubious real-estate deals, rabbit and chicken farms; fake church directories, worthless or spurious book and magazine subscriptions, correspondence courses and the like; and "temporary loans" and "rubber checks." The minister, alone in his home or office, usually has no such barrage of secretaries, associates and the like, to stop the invader as has the business man, and his philosophy of help and sympathy frequently exposes him to exploitation. A number of ministers replied that they would rather be swindled a dozen times than overlook one deserving request for help; only one was in favor of punishing crooks, and he advocated it as a means of protecting other ministers. On the basis of the information submitted in the questionnaires, Robert Cashman, director of the study, and

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Ozora S. Davis, moderator of the National Council of Congregational Churches in America, evolved a code urging ministers to investigate before they give, to refer applicants for aid to charitable organizations and important business dealings to lawyers, and to "study people." As one Michigan minister advised, be hard-headed rather than hard-hearted.

A somewhat similar story of the exploitation of people in matters with which they are not conversant, lies behind the organization of the National Committee for the Education of Woman in Financial Matters and the Protection of Her Money. This committee is the outgrowth of discussion at the last convention of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, which resulted in the organization of a committee on the education of women in banking and investment. The new organization will maintain bureaus to provide lectures, legal and statistical service, and advice on real estate and general business matters. According to its announcement, the Better Business Bureaus estimate on the basis of past experience, that in 1928 American women will lose more than $700,000,000 by the purchase of worthless securities. And how about the men?

LAW AND INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

THE formula "in aid of the more peaceable adjustment and prevention of industrial controversy," submitted recently for public discussion after two years' study by the Committee on Commerce of the American Bar Association, contains two recommendations: one, fact-finding; the other, legalization of trade agreements voluntarily signed by employers and employes. There can be no question of the value of the first, for impartial investigation of the issues underlying industrial disputes offers a guide to the general public and puts pressure upon the party about to violate an agreement and unwilling to come to a reasonable settlement. The second might be challenged both as to its practicability and its wisdom. The intent is evidently to compel the observance of agreements and the submission of all differences to arbitration. This over-simplifies the processes of industrial relations and the adjustment of disputes. Because of differences in technology, traditions and other factors, trade agreements vary from industry to industry, and many times from shop to shop within one industry. Further, some of the most successful agreements, such as that of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, started a dozen years ago with a few simple provisions by means of which the workers could voice their grievances to the management. With the development of mutual confidence between the union and the company, this agreement has grown into an elaborate constitution, having unwritten as well as written parts, under which the workers now play an important role in management. Again, the most successful arbitration machinery devised in this country as well as abroad has been set up by industry itself, many times under the wise guidance of government but without any element of legal compulsion either before or after agreements are signed. Finally, the arbitration machinery which has generally made for greatest harmony has in many instances functioned not as arbitration but rather as conciliation. Thus, Jacob Billikopf, testifying before the Bar Association committee as the impartial chairman or arbitrator of the men's clothing industry in New York, stated that in six thousand complaints which had come before him during his office tenure, he had found it necessary to make only one hundred decisions. The remainder were for the most part adjusted by the two parties themselves through discussions conducted under the guidance of Mr. Billikopf as conciliator. Thus industrial relations have increasingly been looked upon as going through a developing social process in which each situation is to be met by those methods best suited to it. There will be hesitancy in approaching them as a fixed uniform institution that can be embraced within a simple formula such as is offered by the Bar Association. None the less Julius Henry Cohen and his associates are rendering an important public service in shifting the emphasis of public thinking from strikes to constructive peace.

FOR A NEW POOR LAW

WITHIN the full thirty-five years of service which he has just completed as pilot of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, Homer Folks has seen his organization grow from a little staff of three persons with an annual budget of $5,127, to a state-wide network of work in behalf of charities, institutions, needy children, the victims of mental disorder, public health and preventive work, on which just short of $700,000 will be expended during the current year. Even more gratifying than this budgetary beanstalk, we wager, is the recollection of the legislative and social achievements to which the S. C. C. A. has lent a helping or a steering hand. Current among these is the Fearon-Shonk bill, now before the legislature, which would provide the first thorough overhauling of the New York poor law in more than a century. This bill, which was prepared as the result of conference and agreement among representatives of the Association of County Superintendents of the Poor, the State Department of Charities, and the committee of the S. C. A. A. which has been studying and promoting poor law revision for the past two years, would divide the state into city and county welfare districts, with a commissioner of public welfare in each. Outside the cities, the care of the poor in their own homes would become a county function, doing away with the present confusion as to the respective responsibilities of town overseers and county supervisors, leaving each county to decide what type of administration it wants, yet concentrating responsibility for that administration and for appropriations. Cities would be constituted independent public welfare districts, unless they voted to become parts of that of the counties in which they are situated. The enactment into law of such a measure would add another stone to the fundamental structure of public welfare with which the S. C. A. A. and its chief executive have identified their labors for the past decades.

MACHINE-GUN LEGISLATION

THE bill introduced by Senator Shipstead of Minnesota, proposing to bar federal courts from issuing injunctions to protect property unless the property "is tangible and transferable," is an unfortunate instance of misguided zeal in a good cause.

The present widespread use—or abuse—of the injunction to break strikes is among the more flagrant evils of our industrial order. The facts are reasonably clear. A temporary injunction can be procured on purely *ex parte* evidence, the defendant not even knowing what is toward. When the matter comes up for decision as to making the injunction permanent, is largely in the judge's discretion. In the present state of the precedents, it lies also in the judge's discretion to make the injunction broad enough to come close

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in itself to breaking any strike. An appeal can be taken, and on appeal the injunction may be set aside. But its nature is such that until the appellate court has acted, the injunction binds. And it binds with power in the issuing judge to bail for contempt the defendant who has acted counter to its terms. Hence everything turns on the sagacity, the sympathies or the gullibility of the judge; and while the plaintiff employer cannot handpick his judge in the federal courts as he can in the state courts, federal judges are usually of conservative temperament and injunctions seem to issue as readily from federal courts as from courts where the plaintiff's lawyer, who draws up the injunction, can study the judges and know which one will sign.

The obvious remedy—of legislating against injunctions in labor cases, the Supreme Court has sadly enough declared unconstitutional. The present bill therefore proposes to throw out the baby with the bath. To get rid of the labor injunction it will forfeit injunctive protection in patent cases, in copyright cases, injunctive protection against draining off oil, gas, water, against intended fraudulent acts of partners and a hundred or a thousand cases more. This is politically bad; it lines up against a sound purpose a multitude who might not otherwise oppose. It is legally bad; it turns a machine-gun on a crowd to get one culprit. It is contrary to all common sense in law-making. What is worse, it may not get the culprit it goes after. The "property" of the employer protected by the labor injunction is shadowy property at best. It has won the designation not because it was property, but because a judge, convinced that an injunction should issue, found the readiest precedents to hand worded in terms of property protection. It is a naive lawyer who believes that such non-specific language as this bill carries could long keep a judge persuaded of the need for an injunction from putting it forth under another label.

Curiously enough, the labor men themselves have already indicated the sound approach in one clause of that otherwise boggled "charter of liberties" of labor, the Clayton Act. There contempt cases arising out of labor injunctions are made triable by jury. This cuts from the judge one important arbitrary power. Above all, it is an adjustment drawn to the specific needs of the specific case. There is no reason for not proceeding further along the same lines. The statute could properly recognize the fact—which even a supreme court might well be brought to see—that a wrongly issued labor injunction causes irreparable damage to the strikers. A provision is possible that temporary injunctions in labor cases should be dissolved or made permanent on hearing within forty-eight hours. A provision is possible that appeal in such cases should be given absolute preference and heard within two weeks. It is possible to codify and legalize expressly the standard purposes of strikes and the standard ways of conducting strikes. The law and practice of strikes has developed far enough to make such listing intelligent and reasonably comprehensive: and any political pressure which would pass the present bill would pass a short code such as is here proposed. Finally, constitutional objections, if any, are infinitely stronger in the case of the proposed machine-gun legislation. The bill should fail, and will. Why labor leaders have so persistently lacked sound advice on law, is hard to see; the success of the union in the recent Interborough Transit case in New York shows what can be done in their cause by skilful counsel.

RUSSIA—A SELF-PORTRAIT

HOW the Russian people live, work, and play was brought home to some 70,000 people in New York in a strikingly objective way during the recent Exposition of Russian Art and Culture. Here were displayed many products of peasant handicrafts, pictures, drawings, and an impressive array of maps, posters, and photographs setting forth activities in the fields of science, health, agriculture, education, transportation and industry; and a remarkable group of models of theater settings, not only from the famous Bolshoi and Moscow Art Theaters but also from the ultra-modern theaters of Russia, the Children's Theater and the workers' clubs which have taken up dramatics. A later issue of The Survey will contain reproductions of some of the peasant arts, but no photograph can do justice to the ingenious maps of the various republics which make up the Soviet Union, in which the national resources, indicated by the actual coal, minerals, grain, wood, salt and other products, were made parts of the maps themselves. The charts, posters and photographs showing schools and sanitaria into which palaces and villas have been transformed, factories, clinics, workers' clubs, theaters, transportation lines, power development and progress in scientific agriculture, form an imposing exhibit of the efforts to meet the fundamental needs of a nation of many races reaching from the Baltic and Black Seas to the Pacific.

The exhibits were assembled in Russia by the Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries, which had the good sense to let them speak for themselves and to minimize anything which might appear to be propaganda. The net result was greatly to fortify an understanding of the tremendous surge of Slavic life as it is lived today—to further breach the hard shell of American opinion about Russia, first cracked by the visits of the Moscow Art Theater, the Chauve-Souris and Chaliapin's towering impersonation of the old Tsar Boris. The exhibits have become the permanent possession of the American Society for Cultural Relations with Russia, 49 East 25 Street, New York City, which hopes to make them available for display in many localities.

THE NEGRO LIVES LONGER

IN their chances of life and death one-tenth of all Americans are about forty years behind the times. These are the ten and one-half millions of varying degrees of Negro blood, classified by the census as Negroes. So acute a difference between the mortality rates of Negro and white population has been shown in analyses of local statistics that the U. S. Public Health Service has just completed and published a study of the subject (Mortality Among Negroes in the United States. Public Health Bulletin No. 174) to bring together the existing data. According to the 1919-1920 life tables, the expectation of life at birth is about fourteen years less for the colored population than for the white. Certain diseases, notably pneumonia in early middle life, other respiratory diseases, and illness which is associated with poverty or unfavorable sanitary conditions, show a striking contrast. Yet between 1900 and 1910, and again between 1910 and 1920, the gain of the Negro race in longevity was practically the same, or a little greater than that of the white. They are progressing, at about the same pace, though they have not yet been able to bridge the gap. Obviously colored people, as a race, have been handicapped by economic and social factors which do not easily lend themselves to statistical

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interpretation. One suggestive set of facts, however, was revealed in the present study. The most favorable Negro mortality rates were found in the rural districts of the southern states, rather than in the urban centers, north or south, to which there has been so striking a Negro migration during the past decade. Yet considering cities only, the North had a much more favorable showing than the South—despite the overcrowding resulting from that migration—New York, for example, an urban Negro death-rate of 14.5 per 1,000, as compared with 21.4 in South Carolina, or 18.8 in Mississippi. "It seems reasonable to infer," declares the report cautiously, "that some factor has been operating to reduce the northern urban rates below the level of urban rates in the South. Whether or not public health activities have been the cause of the reduction of mortality in northern cities it is not possible to say definitely on the basis of the present evidence, but the deduction that the public health agencies have been somewhat responsible, is a reasonable one". Here, indeed, lies a clue for health officers who would set an enviable standard for all the citizens of their city or state.

A DEMONSTRATION THAT DID

"TODAY medicine—and particularly preventive medicine—is the property of all mankind. A progressive physician must be aware of his relationships to the civic and economic problems of the community and nation." Using this as text, a committee of the Cass County (North Dakota) Medical Society proceeds in a report unanimously approved by the society to tell its experience in the five-year child health demonstration recently concluded in Fargo. Especially in view of the mutual misunderstandings and criticisms of professional and lay groups in similar socio-medical undertakings in some other parts of the country, it is significant that in Fargo it was the physicians themselves who recognized the opportunity afforded by the offer of the Commonwealth Fund to co-operate in a demonstration in a city of the Mississippi Valley. These doctors stimulated representatives of other civic groups to see what might result from a joint effort in which the medical and dental professions, the schools, the Red Cross, the tuberculosis society, and the city government all should play a part. As witness of its interest, the city agreed to replace a part-time health officer with one on full time. A detailed statement of principles and program was presented to the physicians at the outset by the demonstration, and problems of administration were discussed frankly as they arose later in concrete instances such as in the admission of cases to health centers, immunization against diphtheria and the like. Advisory committees appointed by the medical society worked with the health officer and the demonstration. In the five years the health score of Fargo, measured by the appraisal form of the American Public Health Association, rose from 320 points out of a possible 1000 to 814. Half of the physicians whose opinions has been obtained feel that they have observed a very decided increase in interest in health on the part of their patients, and a number of them report an increase in their actual work as a result of the active education of the public by the demonstration of what health service can be. "The services already initiated by the medical profession have been given an added stimulus by this united effort," concludes the society's report, published in full in the Journal of the American Medical Association, (January 21, 1928, p. 191), "in such a way that the whole health movement in Fargo appears to have been put on a sound and, it is to be hoped, a lasting basis. Without such unity of purpose and understanding, neither the medical profession nor the health agency can accomplish as much as both have a right to expect in furthering the health interests of the community."

WHAT YOUNG HUSBANDS WANT

JUST how a young man's fancy turns, in anticipation at any rate, if not in fact, is revealed in the answers of a group of eligible young men who recently embarked on a study course, Making the Most of Marriage, at the Omaha, Nebraska, Y.M.C.A. The course, which was given under the direction of T. Earl Sullenger, head of the sociology department at the University of Omaha, included talks by qualified speakers on various aspects of matrimony, from eugenics through biology, sociology, psychology, divorce, family finance, and parenthood, to the spiritual concepts of marriage. At the opening session, the "students" were invited to give their ideas of the qualifications for a wife in order of importance. Their composite list includes twenty-seven items, concluding with a provokingly ambiguous specification, "attitude on woman's suffrage." But that this segment of the younger generation is not as light-minded as its casual critics would give one to suppose, is apparent from the characteristics that appear in the first four places—health, moral character, "natural mental ability," and willingness to rear a family. "Good cook" is sixteenth on the list, beauty is eighteenth, while "dress" appears as number twenty-one and wealth as number twenty-four. This course, and the similar courses and institutes sponsored by the Family Commission of the National Y.W.C.A., exemplify concretely some of the principles discussed by Ernest R. Groves in his article on education for marriage and parenthood in the issue of The Survey for December 1.

"FOR WISER PARENTS"

WHAT children should eat, what they should wear, what they should play with, the sort of schools they need, the sort of homes they ought to have—all this and more is to be gathered in an ambitious Exposition for Parents, to be staged by the social and civic agencies of New York City during the last week in April. The plans for this novel city fair, with its slogan, "For wiser parents, happier homes and better communities," originated with the United Parents Association, under whose auspices it is to be.

The exposition will be housed in three entire floors of the Grand Central Palace, with reservations on the third floor for the various departments of the city government who wish to exhibit. James E. Russell, dean emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University, heads the exposition committee, which includes representatives of City College, Hunter College, New York University, the Child Study Association and the Public Education Association. All sorts of educational aids, including demonstrations, moving pictures, radio, charts, lectures, conferences, discussions, will help in "telling the story" of the various exhibits.

Recognized authorities in home economics, child training and care, education and housing will, it is announced, assist the exhibition committee in coordinating the various exhibits "to present an impressive and unified picture. . . . It is within the province of this committee to exclude organizations whose products or processes do not have a direct influence on the safety, health, welfare and efficiency of the home." The committee is exercising the utmost care in encouraging only such exhibits as can graphically present the educational value of their services.

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Tackling Seasonal Unemployment

By RUBEN LEVIN

THE commission on seasonal unemployment is to conduct a sweeping investigation, by order of the last legislature, into the cause and cure of that industrial malady.

About the round table (it is rectangular here) are ranged the executives of industry, the heads of departments, and the trade union and labor delegates. Some are leaning back, their chairs tilted, blowing rings of smoke contentedly toward the ceiling. Some are hunched over the table, their arms folded; thinking, it appears. Some are scanning mimeographed sheets, distributed to each and containing questions on unemployment. The chairman, a professor of economics at the state university, a red-faced little man with a plaintive voice, directs the meeting to come to order. A scraping and shuffling ensues and the men straighten to listen.

"We are here," the chairman begins, "to go into the matter of seasonal unemployment, a problem that we have always faced, yet never solved. We are to consider the following questions, which have already been given you: What is the reason for, and what is the extent of, the ups and downs in industry? How extensively does a slack period follow discharges of labor? How can we dovetail the workmen of one industry in our communities with another?

"With that in mind, we have sent to you certain questionnaires and called you into conference for your views and your assistance.

"We hope that you men will be free to describe the conditions in your own field, to make recommendations and criticisms, to offer anything that you think may be of importance."

The chairman cants his chair, replaces the cigar in his mouth, and waits for suggestions. No one speaks up. He lowers his chair.

"Well, I guess I'll have to call on some one," he says, with a wry smile. "Mr. Hart, you are head of a large structural iron company. Won't you tell us about the conditions in your plant? Won't you let us know when you have a slack season, when you lay off help, when you hire an extra heavy force?"

Mr. Hart, now prodded, becomes talkative.

"Well," he says, "in our business, we got to cut down late in fall and winter. We lay off about two-thirds of our force then."

"Can structural iron work be done as cheaply in winter as in summer, Mr. Hart?" asks the chairman.

"We could do it for much less," Mr. Hart returns hastily. "We'd be glad to cut out all the profits, and keep our charges down to enough to cover the overhead, if we could get business in winter."

"Couldn't the railroads and the government do all their bridge building, for instance, in winter instead of in summer?" inquires the chairman. "I mean, the work can be done all right when it is cold, can't it?"

"Sure it could be done then," replies Mr. Hart. "We'd be tickled to do such winter work."

"Well, how about it, Mr. Murphy?" asks the chairman of the superintendent of one of the railroads.

"Why, we do quite a lot of winter work now," responds Mr. Murphy. "Maybe we could build more bridges in winter or do other construction work then. But we get our appropriations at a certain time of the year and we do our work then."

"Couldn't the appropriations be advanced, or delayed, in order to help out the seasonal unemployment?"

"Well, maybe so," says the superintendent, "but you'd have to see the higher-ups for that."

Rollin Kirby in the New York World

"Tell me, Peake, is there anything in this unemployment talk?"

"Anyway, the city, county and state governments could change their practices and help along," puts in the chairman. "It seems that they also appropriate their money at the wrong time. They get their money in late summer or early fall, and contract immediately for their construction at a time when other industries are busy and the harvest fields are calling for help. That ought to be corrected. More work ought to be done in winter."

"That's certainly right," approves the structural steel builder.

"By the way, Mr. Hart, what do most of your men do when they're thrown out of work in winter?" questions the chairman.

"Well, I don't exactly

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know," the steel builder answers, hesitantly. "Some do odd jobs, some go into lumbering. I guess they do all sorts of things."

"And some probably don't work at all, all winter," interjects a radical labor delegate, indelicately.

"Maybe so," acknowledges Mr. Hart. "But we'd like to keep them all winter. Our force would be better, if we didn't need to hire some new men every spring."

The ladies' wear manufacturer, Mr. Goldstein, is next.

"We have two busy seasons each year," Mr. Goldstein explains. "We are at full blast from January to May and from August to December. We work overtime then. During the other four months we lay off about fifty per cent of the help. You see, the styles are set twice each year, and we've got to put our stuff out then."

THE chairman wants to know where most of his wear is sold. In the west, he is told. How much in this city? About twenty per cent. Why so little? wonders the chairman.

"Well, what do you expect?" complains Mr. Goldstein. "The stores here buy their stuff over in Zenith. They don't enforce the minimum wage law, there. They've got girls in the factories who work for $7 and $8 a week. We gotta pay the $12.50 minimum wage, even while the girls are learning. It isn't fair."

"Is there any way you can spread out the work a little more?"

"No, we know the styles only a few weeks ahead," says Mr. Goldstein, "and then we gotta work fast."

"A flying squad of the unions like they have in the Chicago needle trades would help take care of such a situation," a labor man suggests.

"Well, we ain't got no union in our industry," Mr. Goldstein growls.

"Sure, you have," the labor man declares.

"Well, we don't recognize it," Mr. Goldstein mutters.

"Oh," says the labor man.

The chairman intervenes again. "Do you sell to the local stores with your own home-city label on your goods?"

"I should say not," avers Mr. Goldstein. "If we don't tear off our trademark, they do. And they put the trademarks of Paris, London or New York on the garments."

"Well, you could keep your employes busy all the year around, if the local stores bought more of your stuff and if the people were educated to buy home-made products, couldn't you?"

"Sure, you bet," agrees Mr. Goldstein.

"Well, we'll call that to the attention of the 'Buy-Made-in-Our-State-Goods' campaign."

The chairman veers the conference to the free employment service. Only those who need casual help ever call up the service, he discovers. Disappointed, he puts a batch of questions:

"Can we make it more efficient? Can we organize it to serve the skilled workers? Can we use it to dovetail the industries that are hit by seasonal unemployment? Can we persuade the firms of the city to register with the service and to submit weekly reports of their employment status? Can we make available information as to which firms are busy at a certain time, which are working at full capacity, which with a reduced force, which overtime?"

The secretary and the president of the manufacturers' association are skeptical. "Good men won't go to the service," they submit. "When a skilled worker wants a job he goes where he knows he can get it. When the employer wants efficient help he advertises. Only the transients use the employment bureau."

Railroad problems now draw the attention of the gathering.

"We don't have as much seasonal trouble as we did once," Mr. Callahan, a superintendent, explains. "Once, when we needed a gang of men for the roundhouse we hired them, and laid them off when the work was finished. We did the same for construction work. Now, we do differently. We distribute the men, wherever we can, according to the needs of each department. And so we keep our force pretty constant now. That has become a common railroad practice."

"Yes, and by that new-fangled efficiency, you have put hundreds upon hundreds out of work," breaks forth a labor representative. "Once these men were given work at least part of the time. Now, a good many have nothing at all."

"I don't know about that," rejoins the superintendent, a bit exasperated, "but the men we have are better satisfied."

"Sure, no doubt," the laborite comes back, "but why don't you use a just system? I contend that you've got to cut down the hours to six—by law. Then all labor will have jobs. And seasonal unemployment will have been taken care of."

"You are generous, aren't you?" puts in the head of the Federation of Shop Crafts, sarcastically. He's not at all in sympathy with the radical labor views. Reforms beyond the shop crafts don't interest him. "How'll they earn a living wage, if they work only six hours?"

"Well, you've got to pay them the same salary as before," the labor radical insists.

"Is that so? Let them try and get it."

"They'll be more efficient. They'll do as much work in six hours as they did before in eight. Statistics prove that."

"So you say. I've had more experience."

AN officer of the maintenance-of-way department of one railroad startles the audience by castigating his employers.

"I say that common labor on the railroads suffers terrible," he asserts. "The railroad hires hundreds of common laborers, puts them to work far out in the country, miles from any sizable city, and then as the work becomes slack, lays off a good share of them. The men are stranded. They have been getting such low wages that they haven't the money for transportation back to the cities to get other jobs. It's terrible. And still worse, the railroad takes away the seniority rights of the men who get other, temporary jobs during the lay-offs and then do not come back at a specific time. It also takes away the rights of the men who, during the harvest, go off into the fields to earn more than their thirty to forty cents an hour. When they return, they've got to start in again from the bottom."

There is general silence. "Yes, something ought to be done about that," admits the chairman.

An officer of the street-car men's organization interposes with his grievances against the machine age and with his solution for seasonal unemployment, as well as unemployment in general.

"The machine has done a terrible lot of damage," he expounds. "It is to blame for all this unemployment and for this seasonal unemployment. The machine is putting

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more and more men out of work. On the street cars, there are twenty-five per cent less men than a few years ago. It's the machine. The automobile, for instance, has made the street-car business seasonal, where once it was permanent. People don't use the street car in summer any more. And now, to top that, they've come in with the one-man cars. It's getting bad, Mr. Chairman. To solve this, we gotta cut down the hours of labor to six, so's to give every one a job. That's the only scientific way out of it."

The head of the conductors of one of the railroads has his say. He explains that his organization does not suffer from seasonal unemployment, even though the railroad cuts down its help in the late winter. How is that? some one asks.

"Well," he says, "during the slack period, the conductors are always taken care of, since they have the highest seniority rights. Some become brakemen. Some do other jobs."

"Oh, and then the brakemen and other workers with less seniority rights are let out of their jobs?" demands the persistent laborite, impolitely. "Sure, it's the fellow at the bottom that always gets it in the neck. I say, Mr. Chairman, that the only way to deal with such a problem is to cut down the hours of labor."

"Huh," pops up Mr. Murphy, "you don't want much. And give them higher wages also, I suppose. Great scheme. Huh."

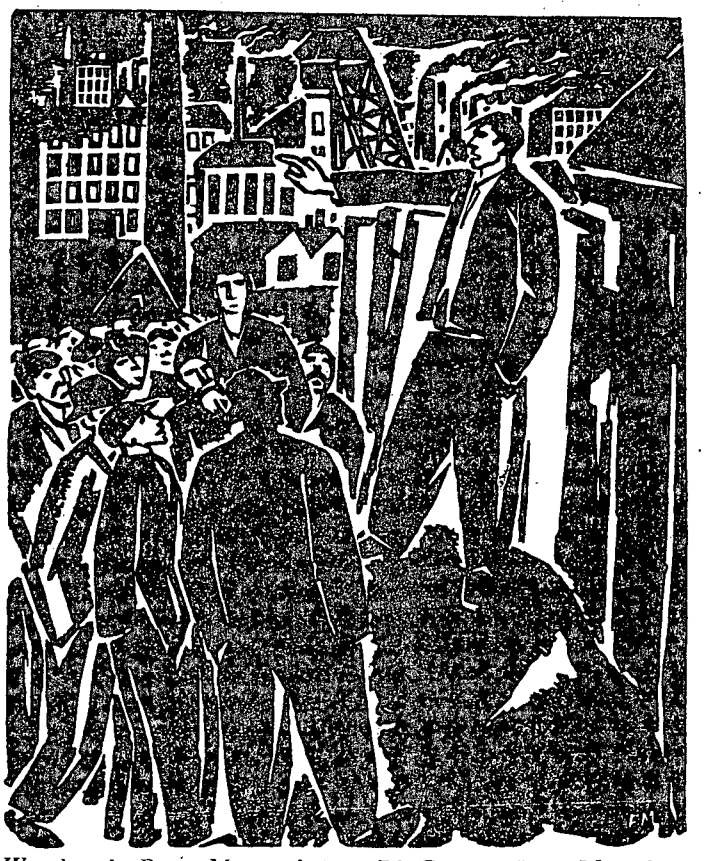
Organizing the Unorganized

By ISRAEL MUFSON

THAT the problem of the unorganized is one that is agitating organized labor has amply been proved by the response to the call for a conference on that subject recently issued by the Labor College of Philadelphia. About two hundred and fifty people, including delegates and interested visitors, were present at every session. The last session, on a Sunday afternoon, crowded five hundred into the little conference hall, with many people standing along the walls during most of the discussion.

The surprising feature of the whole conference was the absence of bitter wrangling over differences of opinion. The problem of the unorganized absorbed the delegates, and all were anxious to learn how to meet it. Recriminations were forgotten in the eagerness with which the subject was discussed.

The decision was unanimous that craft unionism must be modified or entirely eliminated if the basic, large scale industries are to be made safe for the trade union movement. Men long in trade union harness, officials of craft unions with many years' experience as well as young workers who were just learning their labor A.B.C.'s were agreed on that score. Even before they had listened to the clear-cut analysis of American industrial history by Arthur Calhoun of Brookwood Labor College or to the vigorous, front-line trench talk of Louis F. Budenz, editor of Labor Age, they knew from their own contacts and day by day observations that craft unionism cannot meet the issue. This knowledge was reinforced by the views expressed in the course of the conference sessions. The machine is increasingly obliterating skill differences. Groups of employes, working as units in shop production, must have the shop as a basis of representation in their union. It was brought out that the American Federation of Labor when first organized was not a product of the industrial development of the country but rather resulted from increasing means for communication and widening markets. It was a union for skilled artisans and not for factory workers. Every tendency today lies in the direction of greater collective effort, and organized labor will have to follow that tendency to achieve results. If the conference, representing a cross section of the labor movement, had had the power to make practical application of its views, industrial unionism would have been an accomplished fact.



Woodcut by Frans Masereel, from ***Die Passion Eines Menschen***

The tendency for women to enter industry in increasing numbers was another problem which the delegates discussed. What shall be done with thousands and thousands of workers of little industrial experience, timid, gullible, and prejudiced? Most of the old methods devised for interesting male workers in organization have been found useless in approaching women. A suggestion that the labor movement establish women's bureaus may be a practical means of partially answering the question. At any rate, the conclusion was definite that more consideration must be given to working women in the effort to organize the unorganized.

This is a young man's world—at least, in so far as industry is concerned. In the

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industrial and financial centers a man over forty is considered "used up." Large scale production and high pressure turn-out demand young workers. So the young man and woman push out the older worker who shows signs of wear. As a result, according to some of the figures presented at the conference, eleven million young workers are now on the factory payrolls. In some industries, such as radio manufacturing, light metal manufacture, bakeries, paper box and candy factories, they form the majority of those employed. In textile and rubber, printing and publishing, shoe and clothing factories, they range between 30 and 47 per cent of the working force. An appeal to those who now constitute the unorganized must be an appeal to youth.

Here again it was found that labor had neglected a developing situation. Youth has not been taken seriously enough to demand of it the whole-hearted devotion which labor so sorely needs today. There is too much resentment of the characteristically critical attitude of young people to make them interested in labor organizations. The expressed opinion was that this attitude must be changed before there will be any success in drawing these young workers into the movement and in keeping them there once they are in.

And finally, the discussions brought out that the job of organizing the unorganized can be made infinitely simpler if the movement is made a crusade for human rights and human values. For the unorganized masses, stress should not be laid so much upon wages and hours as upon the field of adventure which the movement opens to them. The imagination of the young workers especially could be aroused by presenting to them the great opportunities organized labor offers to become fighters for a cause in which the things most worthwhile in life are involved. The conception of organized labor as a champion leading the masses all through history in the fight for recognition and expression would eventually win the unorganized for the labor movement.

The part that education must play in this process of organization was not forgotten during the conference. Workers' education was accepted by all as a continuous process and as a common aid to all the measures proposed. It was deplored that in too many instances trade unionists are just card holders with no idea of the actual meaning of the labor movement. Knowledge of the structure and function as well as the history of organized labor, of the economic society in which we live and of the facts pertaining to the particular industry in which the workers are employed was expressed as essential to make a cohesive, intelligent and effective force out of the membership. With such a machine to start with, composed of units thoroughly aware of modern industrial conditions and intelligently playing their role in the scheme of organization, the movement would be newly vitalized and become the powerful social force necessary to overcome the apathy of the unorganized millions.

Some dissatisfaction was expressed with the tendency towards cooperative alignment with management. Those who felt that not much headway can be made in overcoming the difficulties of organization without first making the workers conscious of a definite class feeling expressed the opinion that all practices establishing harmonious relations with management weaken the movement. On the whole, however, union management cooperation was accepted for what it really seems to be—the extension of the bargaining power of the labor organizations.

Summed up, the conference brought out four primary policies which labor must pursue if it is to be successful in tackling the unorganized workers. It must adopt some form of industrial unionism. It must pay more attention to the women in industry. It must give heed to the demand, the psychology and the ambition of the young worker. And it must express its idealism in terms that will visualize for the masses their loftiest aspirations as human beings. With delegates coming from radical and conservative unions, tinged with all shades of the spectrum between the white and the very red, it is significant that upon the above four points all were agreed.

Industrial Home Work Today

By MARY ANDERSON

"INVESTIGATIONS of home work and its attendant evils have been made many times, and the findings have been practically indentical. The evils of home work —low wages, long hours, insanitary conditions and child labor—are no recent discovery; but the problem is still a matter of discussion, as no solution has been found."

This statement was made in a report of the Women's Bureau in 1919[1] and yet, if that report were being written today, the same statement could be made word for word with complete accuracy. This thorn in the side of society is still a painful and wearisome trouble, and we seem little nearer its removal than we were nine years ago.

Another statement from the Bridgeport report is worth repeating here: "The Women's Bureau feels that home work should be abolished. There seems to be little reason why a group of workers should be obliged to carry a large part of the overhead expenses of the manufacturer, supplying housing, heating, lighting, equipment and frequently machinery, while at the same time earning in many cases lower wages than do the workers who are employed in the factory itself. The added difficulty of regulating sanitary conditions under which home work is being done and the practical impossibility of preventing child labor through any system of legislation or inspection produce a condition which is clearly most undesirable."

So far, of course, abolition has not been accomplished and regulation has been extremely difficult. The purpose of this article is not to review the evils attendant upon home work—they are sufficiently well known—but to show its status throughout the United States today.

Two new reports on the subject have just come from the press. The first is a revision to August 1, 1927, of its own bulletin, State Laws Affecting Working Women, by the

[1] U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Home Work in Bridgeport, Conn. 1919.

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Women's Bureau[1], which includes a brief of all existing state laws. The second report[2], fruit of the work done by the Committee on Industrial Home Work appointed in February, 1926, by the American Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, details the answers to questionnaires sent to forty-five states and to which all but two replied.

This committee reports no legal regulations for thirty-one states, Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia and Wyoming.

Courtesy United Neckwear Makers Union and United Neckwear Cutters Union

The principal recommendation of the committee is that some method be worked out for obtaining complete and accurate information for the country as a whole, preferably through a research organization independent of the membership of the association, but which would work in the closest cooperation with the state agencies although assuming full responsibility for the investigation and report. The committee, as a result of the response it obtained, feels that the states could do much to gather information through their own channels, following, if possible, a common outline of study and supplemented by the investigation of the central body.

PENDING the outcome of such a nation-wide study, the committee reported minimum standards of regulation unanimously agreed upon, and which were felt to be of primary importance. All of these are already in force in certain of the states now. These regulations include:

Absolute prohibition of the manufacture of certain kinds of articles in the home, where it is necessary for the protection of the consumer, as in the case of certain foodstuffs and articles of clothing, or for the protection of the worker, as in cases where explosives or poisons are used in making the goods in question.

The extension of all state labor laws, including child labor regulations, workmen's compensation, employers' liability, minimum wage, and legal standards of safety, sanitation and working conditions, to cover industrial home work as well as factory work.

Responsibility for full compliance with such laws and with special home work regulations should be placed upon the manufacturer.

Authority for the enforcement of all laws applying to industrial processes carried on in the home should be vested in the state labor department, with provision for an adequate inspection staff.

The labor department should report immediately to employers, on the basis of special health department reports, the names and addresses of all home workers registered as employed by them in whose homes communicable disease exists.

All goods given out for home work should be tagged with the name and address of the manufacturer, the nature and quantity of the goods and the name and address of the worker or workers to whom the goods are given out.

THE members of the committee did not feel sufficiently certain of the effectiveness of the different systems now in operation in a number of states whereby individual families or residences are licensed for home work by the state labor department to recommend the adoption of a specific method of regulation of this type. The committee is, however, of the opinion that this machinery should certainly be retained by the states in which it is now operating until such time as more effective methods of enforcement have been worked out.

The entire home work problem is one so thoroughly interwoven with the necessities of human life that no one law and no one investigation can hope to solve it for all time. The home workers in the great majority of cases are not an industrial group *per se*. Probably very few of them would go into factories if they could, and practically none of them have factory experience. Their economic contribution must always be a precarious one.

On the other hand, so long as there are sick children, or sick adults, no matter how efficient the local boards of health, just so long will there be a disease hazard for the community involved in industrial home work. So long as there are men and women struggling with poverty, just so long will there be cheap competition militating against labor's desired standard of living. So long as there continues to be a seasonal fluctuation in industry, just so long will there continue to be employers who attempt to solve the problem of overhead by using that element of the working population that can be most easily found when wanted or turned away when no longer needed.

Only continual vigilance and continual hammering away at acute angles of the situation in each community can hope to reduce them to negligible proportions. Abolition is a dream for the future and it can only come to pass through a living wage and steady employment for the family bread winner, or through an adequate system of mothers' pensions if the bread winner is missing.

[1] Bulletin 63—State Laws Affecting Working Women—Aug. 1, 1927. Women's Bureau, U. S. Dept. of Labor.

[2] Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, No. 455.

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"Scared"

By DOROTHY F. McCONNELL

"SAY, don't talk to me of no future! Don't make me laugh! Want to know where I'm heading for? The scrap-heap—that's where!"

"How old are you?"

"Twenty-four and wise to myself."

A childhood of undernourishment had made Tony frail. At fifteen he left school to help his family. A term at trade school was out of the question, "Had to rustle in the dough!" Errand boy, bus boy, occasionally an unskilled worker in a factory during rush hours, truck driver—so Tony progressed. The days in the factory stooped his shoulders. He could not throw off the cough he had picked up on cold days on the truck.

"No stamina," they said at the clinic.

Then Tony's brother-in-law, chief support of the family, died. Tony, with his uncertain work at low pay, found he must support his sister, her three children, and his mother.

"Sure I took up bootlegging. Say, I'm not going to see my sister's kids turn out like that Brachesi woman's kids. They run the streets while their mother works. No sir, my sister doesn't go out—she stays home and takes care of the home, believe me. And my mother—she can't work. She's no spring chicken. I gotta have money. This job pays.

"Scared? Say every time I see a man giving me the once over, I go blue. Everything tears loose and jumps around inside me. It's no joke, sister, and some day they'll get me. All I want to do is to lay up enough money so that my nephew gets a trade, see? And I want to feed the kids so their bones are right. You got to have a trade and good bones to get by in this world, now let me tell you."

. . . . .

Our cleaning woman was in a flutter.

"My brother Abe come in last night!"

"Where did he come from?"

"Down home. Run away."

"Ran away?"

"Yes, and Lord love me, but he's scared. Huh! I keep telling him no one can touch him here."

"What has he done to be afraid?"

"He owes a white man. Yes ma'm. You see he is tenant for a white man and the white man keeps giving him credit at the store. 'You take it out in work' he tells my brother. Well, Abe, he sits down to figure and all the rest of his natural born life he's got to pay out in work to that white man. Yes ma'm. No chance for money coming in. Just work. That's all. And more credit. So he got everything together and he just ran away. You should hear him tell about it. White man would catch him if he could, sure enough. He can't get at him up here but Abe don't seem to know that. Jumps a foot if a door slams. It's taken the spirit right out of Abe. No ma'm! It don't pay to cheat a white man."

. . . . .

The striking box-makers were coming into the meeting hall stamping the snow off their feet. The hall steamed with drying clothing.

"How's the strike coming?"

"Oh, not so good! The bosses won't meet us, but while there's life, there's hope, I guess. It's got on my nerves here lately. My sister's boy friend says to me last night, 'Listen,' he says, 'don't be a dope. Get out and get yourself another job. Non-union shops raise their pay as soon as union shops do and you don't have to strike for it, neither.'

"Oh, it's scurvy, I guess, to let the union get your raise for you. It's a low down, dirty trick. But that's life, ain't it? Letting some one else do the dirty work? Oh well, I suppose I'll sit by—but, Gawd, when I think maybe we'll be outa work months yet, I get panicky. It's the honest truth. Nothin' scares you so much as no money comin' in, now ain't it the gospel?"

THE FIRST bulletin of the Union Labor College of Pittsburgh, organized in December, 1927, reports that classes in economics, current events, public speaking and parliamentary law are under way. The new labor college has also organized an open forum, and plans a program of labor research. Students from a dozen trades are attending the classes, which are held in one of the public school buildings.

THE BULLETIN of the educational department of the International Ladies' Garment Workers, outlining its work for the current year, is a significant record of workers' educational activities. Of special interest is the outline of nine courses offered by the "Workers' University," planned for advanced students, and the extension courses through which the educational department reaches "such of our members as cannot attend regular classes by offering them courses and individual lectures at local meetings, in local offices, and wherever we can find them in organized groups."

THE NEED for an adequate workmen's compensation law for the District of Columbia is pointed out in a recent statement issued by the American Association for Labor Legislation. Such legislation has been pending in Congress for seven years, although accident compensation laws have long been in operation in forty-three states. Meantime, "Men are maimed for life while at their work almost under the shadow of the capitol dome. . . . Of 61 recent accident cases on hand in which the compensation, or lack of it, is known, it is found that 52 received absolutely nothing from their employers as compensation for their injuries. Among this group of 61 cases there were no less than 21 suits for damages. Thirteen of these . . . . were unsuccessful. Three had not been settled at the time of the investigation, and it often takes two years or more for a damage suit to go through the courts. Three verdicts had been secured, only one of which bore any reasonable relation to the losses sustained."

TO DETERMINE the number of accidents suffered by employed children in a typical American city and the "physical, economic and social results of such accidents, both for the child and for his family" were the objectives of a study made by Frances R. Whitney and Nellie J. Rechenbach, the report of which has just been published by the Consumers' League of Cincinnati. The inquiry disclosed that over 100 children under 18 years of age were injured in the course of their employment in Cincinnati in 1926. One boy was killed, eight were disabled for life. Of the 100 children, 40 had no working certificates, 8 were working at jobs other than those for which they were certified, 7 were working at jobs forbidden by law for children of their age. The largest amount of compensation for a permanent partial disability was $3,284.25. The report includes suggestions for better safeguards for employed minors, and a section on The Social Value of Increased Compensation.

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EDUCATION

Professor vs. Psychiatrist

By DONALD SLESINGER

NO ONE who has been in close touch with the academic world for any length of time can doubt the need of a measure, at least, of mental hygiene. The difficult adolescent years are a problem in any situation; they become especially complex at college because of the intellectual shake-up that accompanies them. No university worthy of the name, fails to disturb habits of thought that date way back to a comfortable unsceptical childhood. And this not only in matters of religious import; a Copernican revolution in the whole sphere of thought dislocates things that will remain so dislocated for years. These trying experiences cause just the sort of trouble that a mental hygienist ought to be capable of handling. Why, then, the recalcitrance on the part of the academic profession, so different from the attitude of teachers of young children? Why are the most heroic measures resorted to before a professor is willing to refer a student to the psychiatrists in charge of the mental hygiene department?

The easy answer is that the time is not yet ripe; that the college professor has not become acquainted with the philosophy of mental hygiene. It is certainly true that the professor does not understand the implications of the new therapy; that he still thinks in an obsolete terminology. One suggests to one's colleagues that so-and-so might be referred to the psychiatrist at the medical school, and the reply is likely to be: "But my dear sir, it's not as bad as that. He's only a little depressed. He's not insane." Or the psychiatrist himself proposes a talk to a group of students, causing a raised eyebrow and the query, "About what? Masturbation?" The psychiatrist returns to his study to await the coming millennium when psychiatrists will be kings and college presidents psychiatrists.

That easy answer, unfortunately, presents only half the picture. If the psychiatrist can justly complain, so also can the professor. There are certain differences of attitude which may have virtues, but certainly have vices. By interest, training, and temperament these two professions look at life differently. The problem is not one of change or accommodation on the part of one group. For the professor to come entirely to the psychiatric point of view would be a major tragedy in our civilization. It would mean a surrendering of values that would make even the mental hygienist a poorer soul. The problem is one of mutual understanding. And when it comes to that, psychiatrists no less than professors are a stiff-necked and perverse people.

A consideration of the two backgrounds may help to explain the apparent irreconcilability. The writer is aware of the dangers of speaking of either profession as a group with a common philosophy, or a common technique. He is also aware that both groups contain charlatans as well as geniuses; he is finally aware that the professor or psychiatrist in referring to his enemy has the former in mind, while in thinking of his own group he has the latter. Nevertheless there seem to be some fundamental differences, which, if not necessary, are at least usual. To one who has associated with both psychiatrist and professor these differences seem to be the basis of the antagonism.

The university professor has spent a good many years of his life learning the subject matter and technique of research of his field. His interest may be in English literature, in economics, in psychology, physics or chemistry. If he is any good he is studying what is intrinsically interesting to him; he is studying it for no more practical end than the fun of it. That outside of that he may be practical; that his investments may be intelligent; that he may even exploit his intellectual love in the interests of his wife and family, no one will deny. But regardless of that the age of Pope, or radio-activity, or business cycles is important as a *Ding-an-sich*. It is important in the intellectual history of mankind, and should, therefore, be preserved even at the cost of some individual sacrifice.

MUCH of intellectual history has been made by queer people, epileptics, drunkards, dope-fiends, libertines. Never mind all that. Faust is worth all the women Goethe ruined, the Critique of Reason those Kant never loved; the Ode to a Grecian Urn, all of Keats' unhappiness; the Fifth Symphony, all the stormy impetuosity of Beethoven. The works are worthy regardless of the personality of the author. They can be studied and loved, as are the Iliad and the Odyssey by generations who know nothing of their creator or his personal, private idiosyncracies. They lose none of their value if they were first put out by fraud. Hamlet is the same Hamlet, whether written by a play actor or a scientist.

This attitude of the college professor is shared by his students, and most of the rest of the world. The earnest men in all departments of the university have it. Those in charge of the religious life of the students see religion in its spiritual and historical

A plan for a mental hygiene department in a typical American college was outlined in this department, January 15, page 510, by Milton Harrington, M.D., formerly of Dartmouth College. Here the discussion is carried forward by a psychologist at the Yale Law School, who indicates how lack of mutual understanding between psychiatrists and faculty members handicaps both in their efforts to give college students a rounded educational experience.

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aspects. It is beautiful; it is old. What a pity that modern life is laying so much stress on the ugly and new. It is not only that students are less happy, but that some beauty is going out of the world because its only habitat, the human mind, rejects it. The pastor has, certainly, a definite interest in his students, but no less a one in his God and the ritual by which he expresses his mystical union with that God.

THE physical and biological scientists often go further in their interest in research, and their lack of interest in their students. Many of them fight shy of the undergraduate, and ask nothing better than to be left alone with a few chosen spirits, to carry on their investigations. To all of these people education is real, it is vital both for its discoveries and for what it preserves. It carries on and develops the contribution that distinguishes man from the rest of the animal world.

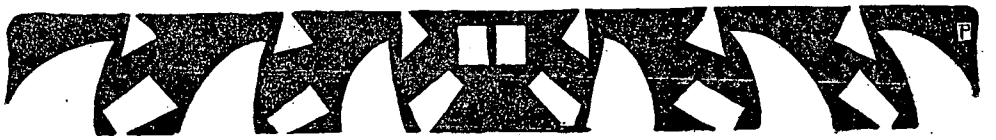
The psychiatrist's viewpoint is entirely different. To him the person is of profound importance, and his work has chiefly a diagnostic or a therapeutic value. His evaluation is too often on the basis of what is revealed of the person behind the activity, rather than the activity itself. Religion is an outlet, art a compensation, science the expression of a dislocated libido. The college professor is nervous in his presence, because he fears that he will be translated rather than understood. His non-conforming attitudes are interpreted, traced back to some personal idiosyncracy. The English professor who chuckles too audibly at Restoration literature is, perhaps, finding relief for a repressed emotional or sexual life. The same is likely to be true of the biologist whose experiments are too closely connected with the functions of reproduction. And the scientist who reaches his laboratory hatless, tieless, at crack o' dawn is obviously in need of treatment.

When it comes to the student, the situation becomes even more incomprehensible. The whole educative process is looked upon in terms of adjustment and therapeutics. The intrinsic importance of a course or an idea is slurred over, while its possible effect on the mental and emotional health of the student is given first place. A lad joins the Atheist Club, or the Liberal Club, or expresses great interest in companionate marriage, or Renaissance art, or fifth century Athens; he likes to be alone on occasion, and goes off for long walks in the country, and refuses to take a room mate; he is out of step here or there; the tendency, on the part of the psychiatrist, is to look at it as a manifestation of a disorder that needs studying. It may lead to mental ill-health. Not what the untrained professor would call insanity, but what he might think of untechnically as unhappiness or misfit-ness. The professor thinks of Shelley, and has a secret fondness for the boy. He is loth to see a return to health and normality. The psychiatrist thinks of the literary outpourings of his neurotic patients, and steps in to save him. It seems to be a real tussle, with no middle ground. Carlyle shouts fiercely, let him alone; no one ever passed a law compelling people to be happy. To which mental hygiene replies, hmm—dyspepsia!

One who has been interested in both points of view wonders a little at the unnecessary antagonism. Both the student and his work are important, and college education can afford to neglect neither. The psychiatrist is on the wrong track when he cheapens religion, art and science by likening them to bicarbonate of soda, excellent though that be in its way. It is just as unfortunate for the professor to cheapen his students by considering them as mere vehicles for preserving and passing on his beloved subject. A comprehensive mental hygiene program is not different really from a comprehensive educational one. It is the habit of thinking in static, mutually exclusive concepts which makes the difficulty seem insurmountable.

The very term adjustment implies something to which to adjust. Education makes that something more complex, varied, beautiful. The boy from the farm is introduced to philosophy and science, neither of which will increase his pig output. He is shown over a vast intellectual field that he would never have touched back on the farm, and that he might be happier without. He is introduced, in short, to the life of the mind; to things which, though disturbing, will not fit him for the economic and biological world which the unimaginative think is the only reality. He runs the awful risk of having his curiosity stimulated, and that means misery for the balance of his days. The adjustment he must make is subtle and complex, and there is much a mental hygienist can do. But his contribution is neither accepted nor desired until he recognizes the life of the mind as an objective reality equal to birth, growth, reproduction and death; until he is willing to evaluate a walk in the country, a woman's desire to keep her maiden name, or a young man's wish to distribute handbills in the cause of labor, as things important in themselves, above and beyond their diagnostic value. The student does not ask the psychiatrist what to think in order to be healthy. He wants to know how he can remain healthy without fettering his mind; in spite of thinking what he must think, loving what he must love. He wants health without spending his life in a hypochondriacal search for it. Otherwise he can do without.

T will be no easy task to reconcile these embattled hosts. The plain fact is that the professor knows little of the hygiene of the mind, while the psychiatrist knows just as little of the life of the mind. If we are going to have mental hygiene in the colleges, some professors and psychiatrists will have to make great sacrifices and spend another eight or ten years perfecting themseleves in each other's fields. To have some few people able to understand convexity and concavity at the same time is the only way of breaking through air-tight professional compartments. At present it is sad, but true, that while one would hesitate to have even a professor of psychology cure one's son of thumb-sucking, he would hesitate just as long before turning his adolescent daughter over to a psychiatrist in order to cure her of free love.



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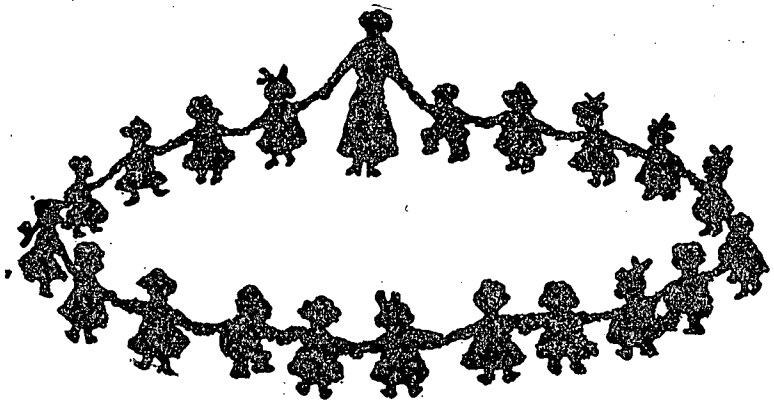
How New Is New? How Free Is Free?

By ALTHA LEAH BASS

ARE all the so-called free schools of today really free? And are all the so-called new ones new? They dot the country, or rather the cities and the towns, for newness and freedom have hardly reached the rural school in any general way; they have pretty teachers and bright new equipment and bevies of lovely little children in attendance.

But a school, to be free, needs more than a name like the Play School and brightly painted furniture and careful medical inspection. It needs, primarily, the spirit of freedom, which has to do only incidentally with pea-green chairs and daily examination against sniffles. It needs to be based on an understanding of the child as an individual who has ideas and interests and preferences of his own and who is not merely preparing to live but is actually living while he is going to school. It needs to have its roots in the fertile soil of sound psychology, and to stand under no chilling shadow of fear or of false moral standards. Happily, such schools do exist and within their walls children thrive in an environment of physical and intellectual and spiritual freedom. They have existed long enough to establish proof of their value in adult lives. But are not many of the so-called free schools still the old schools in new garb? Here are some incidents that have set me questioning.

Bobby always listened intently to the stories told in his kindergarten. He learned them quickly, repeated them at home to his family and used phrases from them on every occasion when he could fit such phrases into the situation that confronted him. Several times, during the story hour at his school, the children had been told that good old Norse fairy tale of The Giant Who Had No Heart in His Body. They liked it, and those who liked it best had learned it almost word for word. It was customary, during the story hour, to let the children contribute occasionally, if they had some incident or story or bit of verse to give.



Courtesy of the National Kindergarten Association

To-day Bobby rose to make his first contribution to the story hour. His eyes sparkled; his face was alight with the brilliance of the idea that possessed him; and when he started to speak he burst into a merry laugh. He had conceived a parody. "Once upon a time," he began, "there was a cuckoo guy who had no brains in his head. 'Alas,' said the cuckoo guy, 'I have no brains in my head and so I cannot fink.' "

He got no further. The teacher was plainly upset by his introduction of slang into the schoolroom, and she could not see beyond that to the perfection of the parody that was being presented. "That will be enough of your story, Bobby. You may sit down."

The gaiety in Bobby's face gave way to puzzlement; he made a hurried protest that he had not finished the story he had made, and then he sat down. His creation, that had filled him with such zest and merriment, had not been acceptable. And his creative power, unless it was of sturdy and invincible growth, may have been killed in that kindergarten story hour.

At little Helen's school there are a woman physician and a nurse, and much emphasis is placed upon the children's physical welfare. A frequent examination of each child is made, and elaborate records are kept. When Helen came into the doctor's office for her first physical examination, she was told that she might undress to be weighed. That, for Helen, was a simple process. She kicked out of two sandals and two little socks, shed a pair of bloomers and a brief bit of dress, and stood lovely and unconscious of herself and her nakedness. She trotted over to examine the weighing apparatus, and the busy doctor looked around from her charts.

"Oh, Miss Sumner," she called quickly to the nurse. "The blanket!"

Miss Sumner unfolded a blanket and wrapped it about Helen's vigorous little body.

"I'm not cold, fank you," Helen protested, but the blanket was not removed. It was slipped aside when measurements were made and lowered when the little girl's chest and lungs were examined, but it was never discarded. Since that time Helen, like Eve, has been aware of her own nakedness and has clothed herself.

John was the only child in his home, and was one of those serene, even-tempered children who know no fears and anticipate no evil. He had never had occasion to fight, and he had not the fighting temperament. But one day two boys a little older than he found him when he was playing alone and, driven by some unsatisfied curiosity or irresistible desire to show their superiority in age and strength, almost completely undressed him.

"They said they were doctors and they had to examine me—all over," John explained in a troubled voice when he came carrying his clothes home to his mother.

Then his mother explained that he must protect himself under such circumstances, that he must hit or kick or even scratch and bite if he needed to—in other words, that he must fight when his own self-respect demanded it. John's serenity was gone, for he had been outraged and he feared to fight. But a few weeks later, when the same little boys

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Courtesy, Nat'l Kindergarten Assoc.

tried to lure him into a garage, he fought them fiercely, and he gloried in his victory. He had won their respect and had proved himself valorous. His eyes were bright again, and his face was serene.

So when John went to school he had learned how to fight. And when, in the play-room, a little boy struck him, he proceeded to make use of his knowledge. Instantly the teacher was at his side.

"John," she said in her most reproving voice. "We do not fight here."

"But he hitted me, and I have to fight him."

"No, fighting is wrong. If another child hits you, you should just walk away and wait until the other child is ready to be more friendly."

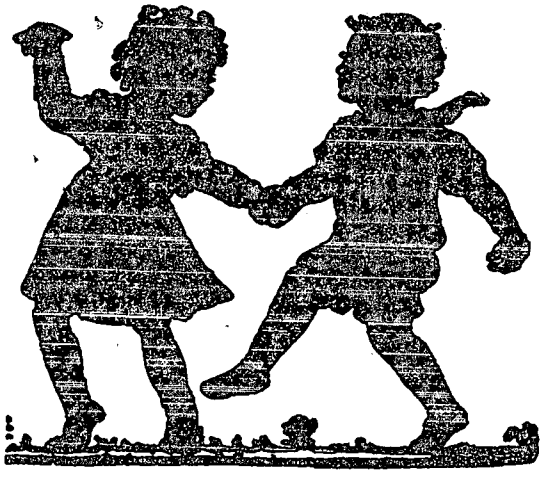
"Fighting is wrong," John announced to his mother when he came home that day. "Miss Henderson says it is, and I don't fink I will fight anybody any more."

The world of right and wrong that he has been slowly evolving for himself is in tumult, and if the two older boys make another attempt they will have their way with him.

The trouble in all these instances is one of keeping up appearances. There must be no stories circulated to the effect that a visitor to the doctor's office happened upon a child naked there; there must be no rumors that fighting is allowed within the portals of the school. Things must seem bright and smooth and decent and orderly, even at the cost of tumult in one child's heart or of the repression of the more inventive little minds.

I have spent mornings in a demonstration school of some reputation and found that it operates like clock-work. But at what cost? The imperative mood prevails in the room, and no child is unaware of it. The teacher in charge has a reputation for efficiency, for finding time for rhythms and music and stories and the mid-morning lunch and outdoor play, in a way that makes the student-teachers and observers marvel at her. But woe to the child who spills his water-colors or upsets his milk in that school-room! As a result, those children who are least sure of themselves avoid new undertakings, and there is none of that bold venturing that makes for confusion or delay in the morning's program at the same time that it makes for individual development. I have seen this teacher, when one of her fellow-teachers comes into the room, exchange glances of superiority and patronage as she looks up from the game or the drawing that is in progress in her room. Her children watch for that quick interchange of glances now, and they hate it. It cools their ardor for the brightest drawing, the gayest play. Under her, teachers are being taught an air of superiority over their charges, a false standard of briskness and brightness, a false value of school-room order.

Can we call our schools new, in spite of new equipment and new terms, such as interest span and intelligence quotient, when the old false standards of decency and order prevail? Can we call our schools free, when a small personality is crushed or an individual need neglected in order that the group may not be disrupted? Would Bobby and Helen and John find their problems overlooked or misunderstood in a school that is truly new and free?



A School That Teaches a Community

By I. S. CALDWELL

SEVEN years ago I. E. Bryan, after completing a course in Clarke University, came to Keysville, Georgia, to take charge of a little, one-teacher school. The outlook was gloomy. Keysville was a small village on the outskirts of which there lived a few colored families. In the hinterland, including the hills and valleys adjoining Briar Creek, there were many colored families. No one thought much of the school. The poverty-stricken colored people were interested in the primitive task of making a living. Many of the men back in the hills and swamps were not averse to gaining a living by distilling liquor and disposing of it to passing strangers or taking it by night to Augusta twenty miles away. A good school was about the last thing that many of these people wanted. In fact, they did not know enough to want a school.

With very little encouragement from either race, the new teacher began to lay plans for a Rosenwald school building. With unusual tact, steering a middle course between Negro indifference and undercover white hostility, and with persistent effort continued over a period of two years, Bryan convinced his people that the little, one-teacher school was almost worthless, and by the high character of his work he won the confidence of the school authorities of Burke County. The county board of education gave fifteen hundred dollars, the Rosenwald Fund gave eighteen hundred, and the work of building the school-house was done by the teacher and the colored men of the community. A commodious two-story building was erected for school purposes, and a five-room cottage was built as the home for the teachers. The state vocational teaching department became interested and paid a part of the principal's salary, and later the vocational board paid part of the salary of the domestic science teacher.

After the school-house was completed the question of furniture came to the fore, and the question has not yet

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The accomplishments of the Rosenwald Fund usually come to us in statistical reports of schools built, rooms added and dollars spent (see The Survey, November 15, 1926, p. 216). Here is an account of the work of that fund in terms of a community re-made through its school and of opportunity for a teacher with a vision.

been answered. The county board of education was appealed to, but deflation and the boll weevil had lowered the school revenues to such an extent that funds were not available. The board hopes to buy lumber for the school desks this year, and the principal of the school will build them by Tuskegee Institute specifications.

At the present time there is not a desk in any of the school rooms, nor is there a seat of any kind in the spacious auditorium. The school children bring boxes, chairs and benches from their homes.

The teaching force now numbers five, and the combined salary of the five is two hundred and forty dollars a month. The principal is paid one hundred dollars; the domestic science teacher, who is a graduate of a normal college, is paid fifty dollars; and the other three teachers are paid thirty dollars each. The principal is really getting less than fifty dollars since he boards the teachers at ten dollars a month. At the present scale of prices, ten dollars will not cover the actual cost of supplies.

The school has a well-selected library of three hundred volumes of standard literature and a few reference volumes. Some of the books in the library were given by friends of the school and some of them were bought by the principal. The reading room in connection with the library is supplied with the best type of monthly magazines and weeklies. These publications are used extensively by the pupils in the preparation of their lessons in history and English. The note books of the students are a credit to the school.

Enrollment has increased from thirty to one hundred and forty-seven since Bryan took charge. In addition to the regular school classes, there are part-time and evening classes for adults. The latter classes now number twenty-seven pupils and the teacher thinks that he has done his most effective work here. Parents who go to school at night become very enthusiastic in their support of the day school attended by their children.

In the spring, the county board of education donated three hundred dollars to buy a canning outfit. The teacher, being a good carpenter and a good mechanic, built the canning house and installed the machinery. The result of the first year's canning was a decided success. Bryan persuaded fifty colored families to grow vegetables for canning purposes. The gardens were planted and cultivated under his supervision. Cans were bought in car lots and the canning was done under the direction of the teacher. At the end of the season twenty thousand cans of tomatoes were sold to one wholesale grocer, at Baltimore prices, and each of the fifty families had from one hundred to three hundred cans of vegetables and fruit for home consumption.

The agriculture class is taught by the project method. The project pupils last year numbered thirty-seven. The young people are beginning to see things in a new light. Several youths who had quit the farm in disgust and gone to distant cities and secured jobs, heard of the revolution that was taking place in their old home community and have returned and gone to work with a will.

When Bryan went to Keysville, the more ambitious Negroes had become discouraged, and a considerable number had already gone north to work in coal mines or in iron mills. But a change is taking place. Bryan understands that ignorance and improvidence have hindered the development of his race. He is making a brave and successful effort to remove the handicap, and is winning out in what many thought was a hopeless fight.

If there were enough Bryans to man all the schools in Georgia, the proverbial "bad Negro" would soon be a thing of the past. The white man is beginning to see that ignorance on the part of the Negro farmer is the greatest hindrance to the economic development of the state. Economists have shown that more than one-third of the farms operated by tenant farmers are operated at a loss. In this case either the land-owner, the supply man, or the tenant must suffer. In many cases all share a part of the loss. The greatest causal factor in this unprofitable business is that men are tilling the soil who have no training and hence little skill as farmers. A sufficient number of teachers and schools of the Bryan type would remedy an almost intolerable situation.

An International Clearing House

By CONSTANCE MORLEY

AN Algerian community wants plans for building a modern public schoolhouse. A Turkish committee is unable to work out a satisfactory program of study for boys in their 'teens. A rural teacher in Nevada wants her geography class to have a more intimate knowledge of oriental viewpoints and customs than they can gain from school texts. Somewhere in the world some one has collected the facts or worked out the method that would solve these and similar educational problems. But how are remote and isolated groups to tap the appropriate sources of information? Machinery for international cooperation among educators, as among so many other groups, was set up not long ago in Geneva, Switzerland, and now, after an experimental two-year period, is functioning smoothly and effectively.

The work of the Institute Jean-Jaques Rousseau must already be known among all those interested in education. It is primarily a training school for teachers. The students are free to choose their own courses and to follow the lines which interest them most. Associated with the institute there is a very modern psychological laboratory, an able body of men trained in educational science, and an experimental school. Former students at the institute now occupy responsible positions in many countries.

From this center with its large library which includes educational material collected from all over the world, an

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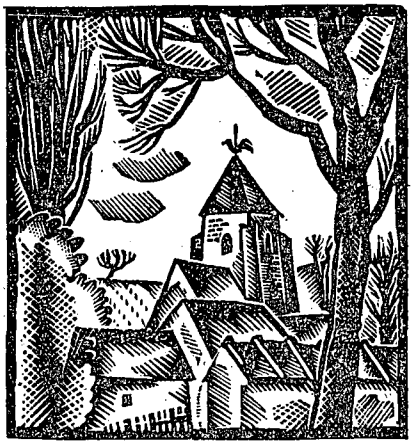

Courtesy, The Open Road, Inc.
Switzerland

international association of education has been developed. The International Bureau of Education was inaugurated in April, 1926, by the Rousseau Institute, with the support of a committee including the secretary for public education of the Canton of Geneva, the director of the International Labor Office, a representative of the League of Nations, the president of the University of Geneva, with other people connected with important institutions in Geneva. It is managed by a council of seventeen members of nine different nationalities. Professor Pierre Bovet, of the University of Geneva, is director. It works in close cooperation with the International Labor Office and with the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation under the League of Nations.

The bureau functions as a central clearing house for information on elementary and secondary education, public and private. Its sources of information are the documents furnished by recognized educational bodies, interviews with experts, and the reports of its members and some one hundred and sixty correspondents in fifty-six countries.

Through scientific research, the bureau contributes to the solution of problems in child psychology, the science of education, tests and methods of examination, school conditions, etc. It held last year at Prague a most successful conference on What the School Can Do for Peace, attended by four hundred and fifty educationalists from many different states. Among the subjects discussed were international school correspondence in modern languages and in Esperanto; the exchange of teachers and of children between countries; clubs and homes for foreign students and also international camps and conferences. New methods of teaching peace, and the work of the League of Nations, were brought forward, and the idea emphasized that there need be no opposition between love of country and love of humanity, but that the patriotism of the majority of children and teachers in all countries is capable of being purified and lifted to a higher plane.

The bureau during the last two years has held a very complete exhibition of textbooks in history, geography and civics, written with an international outlook. It has made a bibliography of these volumes in English, French and German which is in great demand. A more complete edition is in preparation.

A small conference of experts under the auspices of the International Bureau of Education will be held this spring to study the problems of bilingualism, a sore subject with many minority countries such as India and some of the Balkan states. This difficulty has invariably been clouded by political issues. The bureau wishes to have it studied solely in its educational aspects, in relation to the effect on the child of carrying on his school work in a language foreign to him.

Another important function of this bureau is its work of coordination among other international organizations working along the same lines. It believes that with intelligent cooperation work will not be duplicated and much time and effort will be saved for educators who are devising and testing new theories and methods in the schools of their respective countries. To this end the bureau confers with visitors from all over the world and replies to hundreds of letters of inquiry.

Let it not be supposed that the International Bureau tries to dictate or impose any one system or uniform plan of education. It furnishes the facts, and then tries to promote the full development of the national genius of each people, to make one known and understood by the other.

In the words of a member of its founding committee:

"The International Bureau of Education surely will not be snowed under by mere paper and words. It must be living, and give tangible proof of its life; it must be free from all taint of bureaucracy. So it will be a powerful manifestation of life-force, a burning sun from which will shine forth humanitarian ideals and a universal tolerance acceptable to all, no matter what their religious or political convictions."

"INTERNATIONAL fellowship through schoolboy contacts" is the objective of a new plan for a summer of study and travel abroad for a group of American boys, announced by a committee of headmasters of boys' academies in this country. Twelve preparatory schools are cooperating in the new project. The summer vacation course will be tried experimentally in France in 1928. This first vacation school will be located at the Château du Montcel near Versailles, a 40-acre country estate which has been turned into a school for French boys. Here the American group will be associated with French youths in classes, sports and trips. The group will sail from New York July 7 and spend six weeks at Montcel, with trips to points of interest in the vicinity of Paris. They will visit Geneva, Lausanne and London before returning via Liverpool and Montreal. The expense for each boy is estimated at $700. In the course at Montcel, the boys will spend three hours at study each morning, which will include French conversation lessons and lectures on the social, economic and cultural history of France. W. Huston Lillard of Tabor Academy, Marion, Mass., is chairman of the committee in charge.

CONVENIENT in size and attractive to read are the reprints of the proceedings of the conference of the American Association for Adult Education held in Cleveland last summer, which were recently issued from the headquarters of the organization, 41 East 42 Street, New York. The pamphlets carry such titles as Some Considerations in Adult Education, Urban and Rural Problems in Adult Education, Adult Education in Science, Adult Education in Citizenship, Labor's Belief in Adult Education. Each pamphlet contains one or more papers presented at the conference, with the discussion the presentation brought out.

A TWO-DAY nursery school conference was held at Vassar College in February celebrating the opening of the Mildred Wimpfheimer Nursery School. The new school adds to the college equipment "a laboratory for the express purpose of giving to young women some idea of how little children work and play and learn." The building, built in English manor style, with oak panelling, a flagged terrace and a large outdoor playground, is planned for a group of thirty children from the ages of twenty-one months to four and one-half years. There will also be a summer session for children whose parents are enrolled in the four weeks Institute of Euthenics.

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The Private Practice of Social Work

By ROBERT W. KELSO

THE private practice of social work is the poor vehicle for a real idea. We begin to hear the phrase now and then in the face of an unprecedented fever of organization, of revamping, of legal rescission and of federation among social work enterprises. It means no less than the dawning of a new chapter in the profession of social work.

In earlier times—and today also, for the most part—charity was the sympathetic help of the poor and the unfortunate by persons of wealth and philanthropic spirit. The lord of the manor so aided his vassals. The lord of the industrial manor so aids his employes. In modern society the highly privileged citizen counts it his prerogative if not his duty, to assist the poor—to soften the rigors of old age, to leave of his residue or surplus in trust for charitable uses. It is an age that exemplifies the upgrowth of that "other-mindedness" which Kidd identifies as the index of social progress. To put it into effect there have sprung up innumerable charitable institutions and agencies devoted to the application of such surplus wealth to the necessities of the poor.

The term "social work" began to be heard when organized charity reached such a stage in its development that the relief of the individual called for investigation and study of his needs with a view to his rehabilitation. The emphasis turned from remedial relief to preventive social service. But the equipment with which the budding profession of social work had to operate related almost wholly to charity. It was bound by outgrown purposes, hopelessly fixed in charters and testamentary trusts. It was fortuitous in growth and fragmentary in organization. And this is its condition today. Through federation there is a blind groping toward the evolution of some sort of an integrated program of public welfare service. We speak of a program—we look hopefully toward the horizon, straining to see some consistent philosophy of community protection and advancement. But we see as through a glass darkly; meantime we have come face to face with a query that does not seem to have disturbed us heretofore. It is this: Who needs social service? In the answer to this riddle we shall find justification for the use of this new phrase, "the private practice of social work."

Who then is in need of social service? Chris Larsen has worked at his cobbler's bench for more than fifty years. He has raised a family. He is now old and too unsteady to do good work at the bench. He has no savings and no one to look after him. No doubt he needs help during his last days. Did he stand in need of "social work" before he had to give up and before he became dependent, but when dependency was clearly visible in the offing?

"Tufty" Rivers is now on his second parole. He has been through probation and a couple of commitments to juvenile training schools. There was a time when "Tufty" was a decent "kid" going to school and selling papers afternoons and Saturdays. Did he need "social service" before he first became delinquent?

St. John Jedevie is a merchant with a good business. He makes a fair income and applies it at home. At the moment we see him, his wife has fallen into the practice of attending séances and has become infatuated with another man. The eldest daughter threatens to be a problem, without the mother's leadership. There is no doubt that Mr. Jedevie's family life is headed for the reef; but he is in no sense a dependent. Does he need social service?

The further we go in this field the clearer becomes the truth that social service is not limited to poverty and dependency. It applies to the whole of society and relates chiefly to human adjustments wherever they are found. Its principal grist is the great group of the unprivileged, since they are more nearly helpless. But as it advances in volume and technique we shall find it reaching upward more and more into the stratum of the well-to-do and the wealthy.

Here is a man of wealth and position who comes to a noted psychiatrist to find out what to do about a headstrong daughter. He and his wife are driven to desperation by this mite of flesh who appears to have a "pronounced personality." She is scornful of her mother's social hypocrisy. Her dad is out-of-date. If she wants to stay out over night, to go on some trip with a boy friend without a chaperone, or to dress "attractively," that's strictly her own business. *She* is the fellow who is living *her* life. Dad has lost faith in his daughter. He fears sex delinquency. She is a little fool, that's all. Now what shall he do? He has money enough to carry out the specialist's prescription, no matter what it may be.

BY skill and good fortune the psychiatrist discovers the key to this girl's mental difficulty; and with a carefully planned program of his making, Mother, Dad and emancipated Daughter reach a sound basis for home life. Incidentally, the psychiatrist in question conducts a research service which began with juvenile delinquents; but which at the present time finds more than half its intake in the pre-delinquency field, reaching out always to the preventive aspect of service.

A young man of fine appearance, with an income of between ten and twelve thousand a year, came recently to a social worker who is also a member of the bar. He said, I wish to retain you as my legal adviser in a difficulty which is giving me much trouble. I understand that what I may say to you will be a privileged communication. Thereupon he related a story of twenty years of crooked living which without identifying any one offense showed that he had followed the gang as a small boy and had never had a friend strong enough to draw him away from it. Now his wife—thus far in ignorance—had found (*Continued on page* 770)

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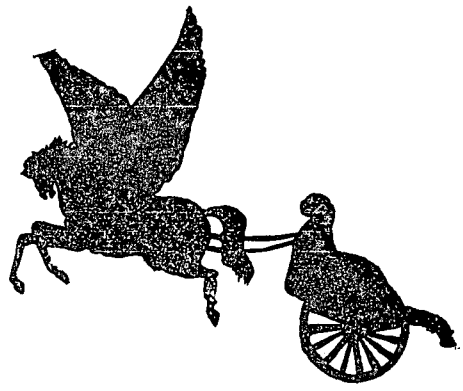
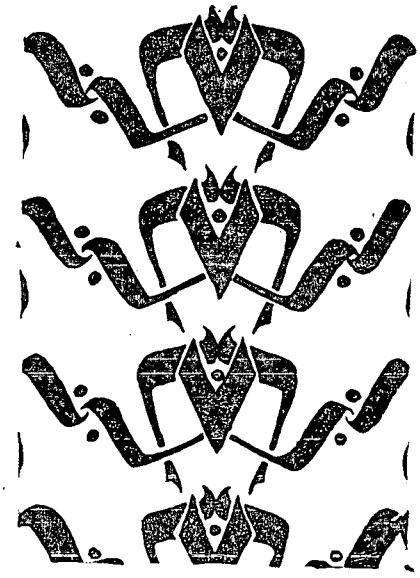


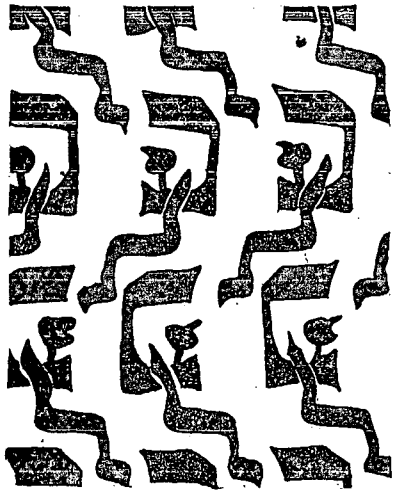
Hebrew letter designs, the chariot of fire, and Chanisho Oser B'Shuat (The Fifth Day of the Fifth Month —The Day of the Fruits of Jerusalem) from the collection of the Children's Art School

Plumbing Personality

The Use of Art in a Social Program



ATOP the centers maintained by the General District Service of the Federated Jewish Charities of Boston are the studios of the Children's Art School, which is one of the units of the Service under the direction of Jeannette Greenberg. Here with pencil, brush, and clay, Jewish children are encouraged to express through art their understanding of their experiences in their homes, the synagogue, in the Hebrew School, and in their daily life in a rushing American city. Three hundred pupils, ranging in age from seven to twenty-five years, are enrolled this year in the score of classes thus maintained in Roxbury, Dorchester, the West End and the South End.



While the art work of the District Service is primarily part of its educational program in these communities, it is tied in closely with all of the other activities of the service. The classes are organized through the assistance of the community worker in each center, who exercises no small influence upon her energetic youngsters. The case workers are constantly in touch with it, conferring upon the mutually interesting or perplexing problems of some child, perhaps questions pertaining to scholarships for further study in the older children, health, or vocational guidance. The psychiatrist refers boys and girls who need this particular kind of recreation and release and in turn proves a stimulating leader of the art teachers' discussions.

The furnishing of the studios is the work of the children—stencilled curtains against the windows, delicate lamp shades softening the lights, decorative pictures on the walls. The staff of the Art School are members of the house committees of the centers, and carry into these the gay posters and original designs whenever possible. At the North Russell Street Center, which houses the largest studio, the office and supply headquarters, various experiments are tried which are extended to the others when they prove successful and finances permit. These include now a little theater, or again a picture library, or a workshop where advanced students may take and fill orders for designs.

By E. H. aged fifteen

Exhibitions of the work of the Children's Art School have been held at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, the National Conference of Social Work, and the Public Museum at Erie, Pa., and the collection from which the accompanying illustrations are reproduced will next be shown at the Cleveland Museum and various Jewish centers and synagogues in that city, and thence on to Detroit, Columbus, and back to a number of New England cities later in the season.

The exhibits include pure design using Hebrew letters, experi-

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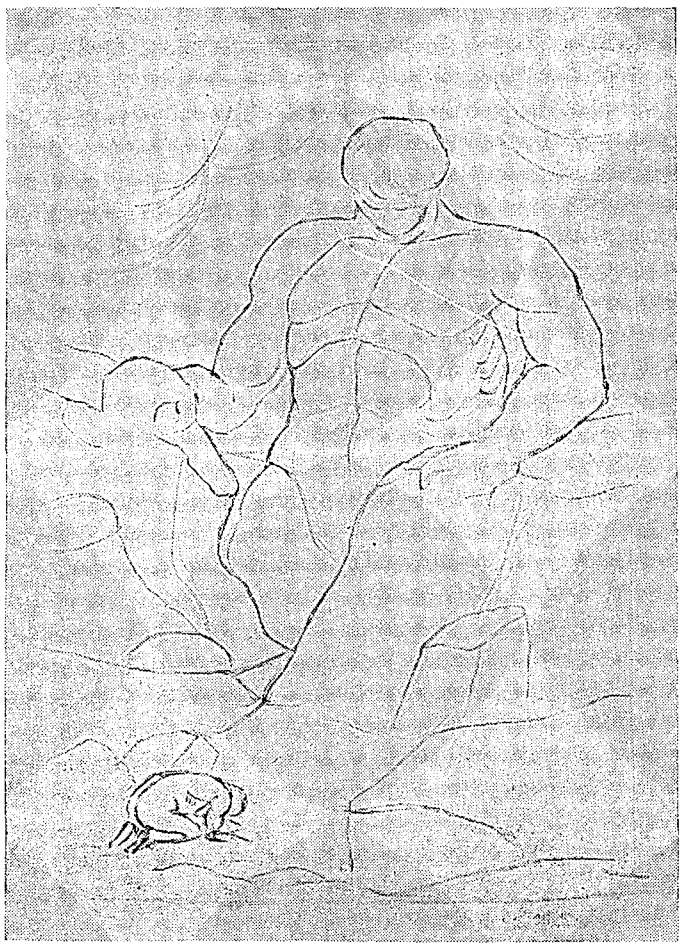
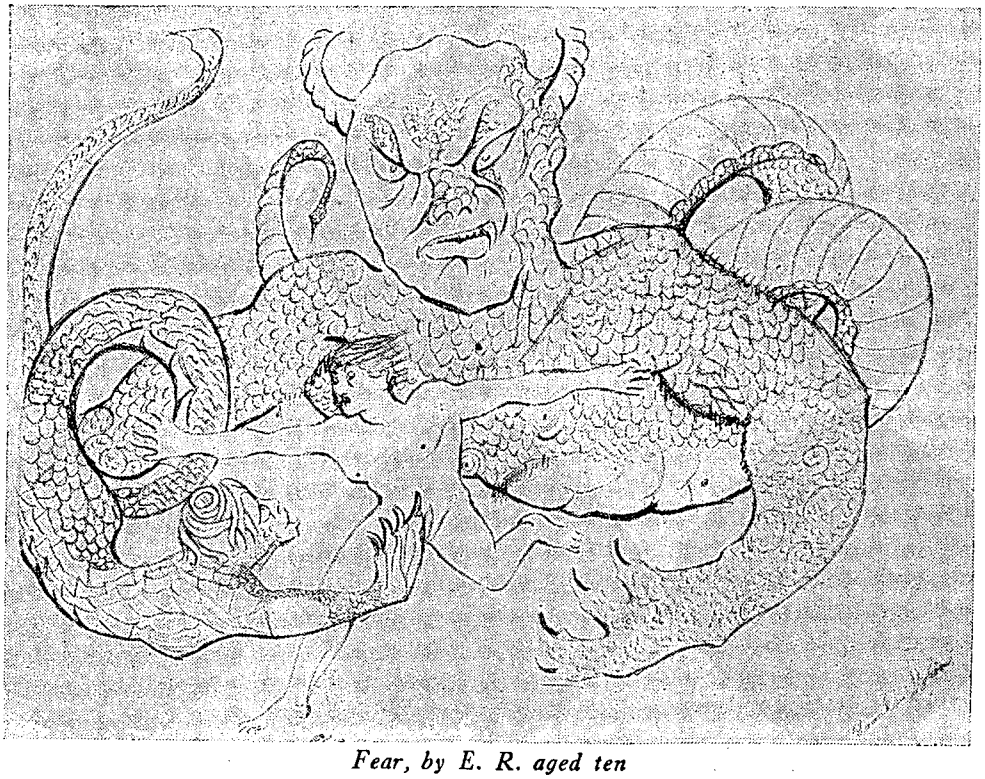
ence pictures, original illustrations of subjects from the Bible and Hebrew literature, oil paintings of Jewish life, batik work, lamp-shades using Hebrew motif, decorative objects, and pieces of modelling from clay and soap.

"Few of these children," declares the program used at one exhibition, "have previously received instruction in the arts. Their teachers are friends as well as guides. Through a true understanding of the child they develop his artistic talents by means of individual as well as group instruction. It is this drawing out, this plumbing of personality, that gives art an advantage as a form of education. . . . The finest picture of all is the child himself, happy and enthusiastic, absorbed in his work whatever be the medium of expression. Art is teaching him the principles of order, harmony, balance and rhythm—the laws of life and beauty."

THE expression of original concepts is encouraged in the young students of the Children's Art School, as well as the interpretation of their experience in home, school, and other communal activities. Two drawings from the collection exhibited this year.



Man and Nature, by H. B. aged thirteen



Fear, by E. R. aged ten

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(*Continued from page* 767) him out; and he was about to lose his home, his wife and baby. This jolted him into a new realization. He wanted to make a right-about-face. Would the lawyer use his social service experience and help him? The result was a plan of honest employment, though at small pay, in which the employer was a trusted helper. Thus far it has been successful.

This same social-worker-attorney was surprised one day to receive a call from two lawyers representing petitioner and respondent in the unusual case of an application of a husband for a decree removing his two children from the care and control of their mother. The alleged difficulty was that the mother suffered from mental disease. By agreement of the parties, the court made this attorney a referee to examine all the facts from the point of view of the mother's condition and the best interests of the children. It was further agreed that the referee's findings should be the only evidence submitted to the court on the issue whether the children should be so removed. The referee having found it for the best interests of the children to be removed, a decree to that end was entered and the attorney continued as referee to determine when and in what manner the mother might visit and have contact with her children.

This was the case of a man of property. It would hardly have been satisfied by usual legal procedure—it needed social service.

In like manner comes also the highly bred, sensitive wife of an equally wellbred gentlemen, who is nevertheless a sufferer from recurrent insanity of the manic-depressive type. As an inventor of note, he is a man of large income. As a victim of psychosis he is a waster of all his substance and a menace to the safety of his courageous wife.

Shall he be committed to a hospital for the insane? He has a horror of being shut up in such a living death. Thus far he has managed to escape from every one in which he has been placed. The lawyers know the procedure for commitment. They can advise with regard to what conditions are usually committable. But they are helpless when they try to solve the tragic problem of this devoted wife.

In this case a social worker, after becoming a friend of the husband became also his conservator and now attends to his property with the frank understanding between them, cordially entered into, that the social worker will step in quickly in the event of a recurrence of the psychosis and secure hospital protection and care, as long as it may be needed. It was not exactly a lawyer's job. The subject of it was certainly not a person in economic distress. Yet there was dire need of social service. The case called for the construction of a plan which would protect a helpless wife and an unfortunate husband, which might bring back to them some contentment and perhaps even a degree of happiness.

The farther we go in social work the more do we realize the fallacy of supposing that social work is limited to the dependent and the poor. An interesting fact comes to light in the work of the Massachusetts General Hospital. It can probably be duplicated in any first-class general hospital in the land. In that institution during the past five years, it seems to be those patients who pay the full ward rates who are found most in need of hospital social service. The following from a recent report of the hospital social service department is illuminating:

> These five years have clearly proved that the idea of social service as primarily suitable for people of the lower economic level is unfounded. The wards of the Massachusetts General Hospital are open to patients who can pay as high as $21 a week. About one-third of the patients are cared for free of charge; another third pay amounts varying from $3 to $18 a week; while another third pay the full ward rates. No one but the patient himself and the administration knows what financial arrangements have been made. Ward patients are referred to us by the doctors for the service we can render in conjunction with medical service, irrespective of th ir financial status. An analysis of the group of patients referred from the medical and surgical wards during 1925 shows the following facts: 1. The 1,382 patients referred comprise 25 per cent of all patients admitted to the medical and surgical wards during the year. 2. Fifty-one per cent of these 1,382 patients were paying the full ward rates.

The Massachusetts General has just opened a special hospital for people of moderate means. It has a fully equipped hospital social service department.

We must be careful how we appraise the new element in such examples as these. It is not that such cases have not existed before. There has never been a time, probably, when persons in distress either of mind or of body did not seek out those in whom they could repose confidence, and enlist their help. Every community has its professional men—its lawyers, its doctors, its engineers—who keep themselves fairly poor through their generosity in service. The new circumstance is, rather, that the community is coming to recognize the social engineer as a professional servant who has skill and can help; who is worthy of his hire; who can stand for social welfare even in the handling of individual interests. The private practice of social work is bringing to that new profession a recognition beyond the boundaries of charity.

Toward a Living Wage for Social Workers

By JOSEPH Q. RIZNIK

> Social workers should not be ashamed to ask for a living wage. . . . Stop talking about doing things for the good of humanity and humanize yourselves. . . . We have standards of culture, education and living to live up to. . . . In order to cultivate the proper outlook upon life, it is necessary to have a living wage. . . .

IN the early part of 1926 several social workers heard these remarks delivered from a speaker's stand. The thoughts fell upon fertile soil and stirred restlessly as they germinated. This restlessness was transmitted to fellow-workers in one organization and spread slowly among organizations included in the New York Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies. The seeds sprouted and to take care of the young plants, an organization known as the Association of Federation Social Workers was born. In April, 1926, eighteen social, medical and psychiatric case workers representing ten agencies under the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies, attended the first meeting. In December, 1927, out of 165 eligible case workers, 120 were members in good standing in the new organization. New members are being enrolled every month. Every one of them is mind and soul

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with the association constitution, evolved through discussion and investigation, which has for its preamble:

That the remuneration of field workers contrasts unfavorably as a living wage with that of teachers and skilled industrial workers.

That the lack of financial incentive to continue in field work causes the loss to staffs of experienced workers who might much prefer to perfect themselves in this important branch of work.

That for these reasons the turnover in staffs of social workers is excessive.

That this loss to staffs involves economic waste and a lowering of the quality of work.

To avoid any chance or appearance of duplication, the new organization consulted the American Association of Social Workers before launching its program and was told that small groups can work for standards and gain recognition through intensive work among its own members. If the standards are substantially the same, benefits will accrue not only to the individual group but to the whole field. With this recognition from the American Association, work continued rapidly upon a constitution. The aims are few but pertinent: to standardize requirements for workers; to achieve minimum salary schedules commensurate with training required and cost of living; to retain experienced workers in the field by regular increase; to standardize the case load; to establish health insurance.

Of the more than one thousand employes connected with the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies, only 165 are eligible case workers. The requirements for membership in the Association of Federation Social Workers are the same as those for admission to the American Association of Social Workers and the American Association of Hospital Social Workers. Not only are individuals enrolled but organization membership has been provided for on the basis of staff councils. Each organization forms its own council from the workers who are eligible to individual membership. Each council sends representatives to the executive committee of the association in proportion to the size of the council. This executive committee conducts the business of the organization.

Much of the time during the two years since the formation of this association has been given over to the work of organization, yet there are several tangible results which the organization has to show.

As executives and trustees of agencies are not eligible for membership, staff representatives invited the executives and trustees of their agencies to a joint meeting last June, to discuss the possibility of adopting the association admission requirements as the future requirements for a position at the minimum salary with the agencies represented at the meeting. Executives and trustees showed a general willingness to adopt the standards, but declared that trained workers were unavailable. A discussion of the practical reasons for this difficulty led naturally to the question of salaries. As a result of this meeting, a joint committee representing trustees, executives and staffs was formed to study the entire matter. The cooperation of the three interested groups—trustees, executives, and staffs—is an encouraging advance toward democratic control of policy in social work. It is to be noticed that the impetus is coming from below, that is, from the staff workers.

A comprehensive program has been mapped out for 1928. The outstanding feature is the encouragement by the Association of Federation Social Workers of further professional study among the members. This is to counteract the plaint of executives that trained workers are unavailable.

The question of salaries which the anonymous speaker stressed so strongly at the beginning has assumed minor importance. The outstanding aim is the standardization of requirements in professional social work. The association feels that the "living wage" will take care of itself, with the furtherance of study among its members, the standardization of types of requirements for social workers employed in organizations under the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies, and the standardization of the case load so that it is compatible with doing best work within a reasonable time limit.

Executives and trustees of the affiliated organizations feel themselves entirely willing to cooperate with an association which aims to further such work. With this growing cooperation of trustees, executives and staffs, it is conceivable that the social worker will not be ashamed to ask for a living wage and, with the standardization aimed at by the association, will receive it without the asking.

A FIVE-YEAR program of rural and urban evangelism seeking to remedy overchurching in some communities and neglect in others, to be submitted to all the churches of the country, was adopted at the National Church Comity Conference held recently in Cleveland, Ohio, under the joint auspices of the Federal Council of Churches, the Home Missions Council and the Council of Women for Home Missions. The conference was attended by 450 representatives of nearly three score church bodies in the United States and Canada, with constituencies aggregating 20,000,000 adult communicants. The meeting was unofficial in character and its action is not binding upon any communion. The program sponsored by the three national councils as a result includes the elimination within a definite period of all competition between denominations whose boards are constituent to the Home Missions Council and the Council of Women for Home Missions in which the use of home mission funds is involved; the allocation of responsibility for unserved areas after surveys have been made by teams representing all church communions concerned; and the securing of cooperation in the initiation of any necessary projects to be conducted jointly by the boards under the auspices of the councils of Home Missions, under arrangements similar to those now employed in the conduct of religious education in Indian schools, or at Ellis Island.

UNDER the classification of 335 applications in the 1927 annual report of the Children's Mission to Children (Boston) appears this significant note: "Alcoholism is absent from this list. In three years this has been the primary cause but once." Similar evidence of the decline of alcoholism as a factor in the problems of social agencies of Boston appears in a recent study by the Federal Children's Bureau of the delinquent children of 2,155 families referred by the Central Boston Juvenile Court to the Judge Baker Foundation for psychiatric study between July 1, 1917, and June 30, 1925. Alcoholism of the parents was found to be directly associated with the number of times a child appeared in court. In 1918, 33 per cent and in 1919, 41 per cent of the fathers of children brought before the Foundation were found to have been alcoholic in the year before the child was referred, while in the three next years, following prohibition, these percentages dropped to 29 per cent, 17 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. 1923 and 1924 showed a rise, though still well below the years preceding prohibition. Among the fathers reported as alcoholic in 1918-19, 71 per cent were found still to be intemperate in 1924-25, while 29 per cent were not.

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HEALTH

Sunlight and Health

By W. W. PETER, M.D.

FROM our twentieth century pinnacle we look back and down upon the ancients—the sun worshippers for instance. To us how very elementary was their philosophy! They allowed their belief that life on earth depended upon the sun to determine their whole system of living and thinking. We make no such mistake as that. Sunlight has its place, of course, but what we put first is to work and live just the way we want to. If this sunlight of the ancients cannot accommodate itself to our modern civilization, sunlight just has to be sacrificed.

There are many differences between us, and not all of them in our favor. They lived most of their waking hours in the open. We habitually shut ourselves within four walls of some kind. They lived scattered over large areas. About half of us live in small congested areas. Their homes were built close to the earth. Our crowded tenements, apartments, hotels, mills and factories, reach to the sky. Even their poorest had natural foods. Many of our rich do not. The difference between us and the ancients is largely one of enjoyment of the blessings of sunlight.

One thing which happens in the process of achieving modern civilization is that the type of disease is altered in character. We used to be a dirty, vermin-infested lot. When we reached the stage of better cleanliness we left typhus and other diseases behind with the dirt of those centuries. Gradually, however, we took on other diseases. Some of these are directly the result of our decreasing exposure to the rays of the sun and our increasing congestion. Tuberculosis and rickets are part of the price the modern paleface has to pay for living in herds, shut within walls or underground, with artificial lights and on denatured foods.

"Tuberculosis," says Dr. Milton J. Rosenau, "is the most frequent and widespread of all the major infections. It is a disease of cattle in barns, not on the range; chickens in coops, not birds in nature; monkeys in zoos, not in the jungle; men in houses, not primitive races. In this country, 9 per cent of all deaths are caused by tuberculosis."

About rickets the same writer says:

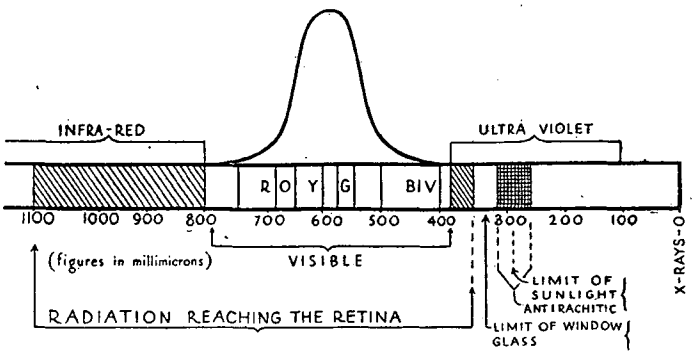
Rickets is a nutritional disorder due to lack of sunshine and faulty diet. It is a disease of civilization brought on by artificial living. The disease is characterized by an alteration in the structure and growth of bones, which become enlarged at the extremities and so soft that they bend under the weight of the body. It occurs during the first two years of life when growth is most rapid. Rickets is responsible for bowed legs, knock knees, flat feet and saber legs; and is associated with the rickety rosary [knobby joints between ribs and breast-bone], pigeon breast, square head and pot belly.

Rickets is one of the penalties of living in houses on a denatured diet. Primitive man lives in the sunshine and on natural food. Savages may starve and may become victims of pestilence, but do not develop rickets. Tropical races are spared. The Esquimos, deprived of the sun's rays for long periods, are protected by a diet rich in fish oils and liver.

Rickets occurs mostly in cities and particularly in large industrial centers. It is the most common chronic nutritional disorder occurring among infants of the temperate zone. For various reasons it is more often overlooked than recognized. It does not appear in the mortality tables because it is seldom a direct cause of death. One of the main dangers of the disorder is that rachitic children are predisposed to infections of the respiratory tract. Infants do not develop rickets in the summer on account of the protective effect of the sun's rays. This is due to the ultraviolet radiations and not to the visible rays.

Not all the rays of the sun can be used to pervent or cure rickets. We sometimes use the term sunshine as we use the term oxygen, implying that the composition is identical throughout. But sunshine has many kinds of rays. Only one kind stands out as of remedial usefulness in rickets.

The separation of sunlight into its component regions is determined by the measurement of its various rays. The length of a light wave is measured from crest to crest. Rays from 50,000 to 800 units in length are relatively long. Heat waves come in this group. Those from 800 to 400 units include all the visible rays. When they are less than 400 units in length they are called ultraviolet rays.



Rays of light which are more than 800 millimicrons long, from crest to crest, we feel as heat, though we cannot see them. When they are between 400 and 800 millimicrons long, they are visible, forming, according to their length, the colors of the spectrum. Beyond purple, or "ultraviolet," not felt and unseen, lies the very short range of the rays which prevent or heal rickets.

These figures sound large but the actual unit of measurement is inconceivably small. Imagine dividing an inch into 25,400,000 parts. One such part constitutes a unit of measurement known as a millimicron. Whether long or short, these rays of varying length come to us from the sun over a distance of approximately 93 million miles. It would not seem strange if most of them got lost en route. As will be explained later, many of them are lost on the last lap after

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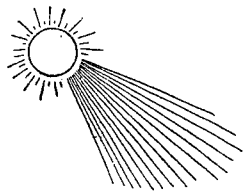


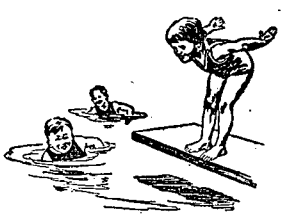
Drawings from The Growing Child, His Needs and Care, by Herman N. Bundesen, M.D. Courtesy Chicago Department of Health.

they arrive in the vicinity of the earth. The accompanying diagram, based on Rosenau, may help in forming a picture of these three groups of rays. Those to the left, the infra red rays, are of relatively long wave length. We can feel their heat but our eyes are not so constructed as to see them. The middle group of rays vary in extreme length by only 400 millimicrons. Within this range lie the colors of the spectrum. When rays of 600 millimicrons strike the retina of the eye and the impression is transmitted to the brain we say we see yellow. Longer, and it is some form of red. Shorter, and the color varies from green to violet depending upon their length. The rays in this color group are seen and not felt.

Shorter than 400 units the rays of sunlight pass beyond the capacity of the human eye to record. These rays are neither seen nor felt. Yet that these rays are vital and can most profoundly affect us is one of the great practical discoveries of science.

As an example is the experiment with sixty school children for a period of nine months. Thirty had access to and thirty were without ultraviolet rays during school hours. At the end of the school year those who had lived under conditions of devitalized sunlight showed 9 per cent less coloring matter in the red blood cells, three and one quarter pounds less gain in weight and one half inch less increase in height.

When we speak of the sunlight as one of the best germicides it is the ultraviolet rays which exert the most lethal effect, although the heat rays are also of importance in the drying which helps kill exposed bacteria. In direct sunlight the tubercle bacillus, if not buried in a mass of other substance, dies in a few hours.



Not all of the rays which are classed in the third division, the ultraviolet rays, are equally effective in dealing with rickets. A further division according to their length has been determined by experimental research. Very short ones, from 250 to 280, have more intense effect against rickets than those of greater length. Waves 313 units long have but faint healing action. The really effective rays commence at 302 and range down to 265. The region of antirachitic solar radiation is markedly selective. A difference of a few millimicrons determines whether or not rays are effective.

At this point we encounter some surprising facts. However generous may be the total amount of radiant energy released by the sun, the ultraviolet rays constitute less than 2 per cent of the sun's total radiation. These rays are very sensitive to the media through which they pass and are readily absorbed. The atmosphere surrounding the earth is a great barrier. Obviously, more of them reach the earth in summer when the sun is near the zenith than during the winter. Likewise there are more of them on the top of a high mountain than at sea level. There are more of them on bright than on cloudy days; more reach the country than the smoke covered cities, for they are absorbed by dust, moisture and gases. In a clear atmosphere 30 per cent are absorbed by the atmosphere at mid-day and 75 per cent when the sun is nearing the horizon. As photographers well know there are few ultraviolet rays in sunlight before 10 A. M. and after 2 P. M. across the northern belt of the United States for most of the months of the year.

These facts explain why rickets begins to appear among babies in the late fall, with an increase during the winter and the high peak in March. "During the winter months," says Dr. Alfred F. Hess, "when the shorter ultraviolet rays do not reach the earth and the longer ones are less intense, the width of the antirachitic zone of sunlight is only about 5 mμ These observations emphasize the danger of the small band of specific radiations being filtered from the atmosphere by moisture, dust, smoke and other foreign substances."

How many of these effective rays (302 to 250 units) come from the sun? None shorter than 290 millimicrons under the most favorable conditions. Even on a mountain top the earth's atmosphere absorbs all of the sun's rays shorter than these. Even at 302 their intensity is very weak. When, as is often the case especially in cities, the atmosphere is heavy with moisture, or polluted with smoke or dust, all waves shorter than 300 or 310 units may be lost. For thousands of children living in industrial and other smoke-covered cities, this means a long period of existence in devitalized light. Hence rickets.

In a recent study in Chicago conducted by the Department of Health and the University of Chicago, it was found that "comparatively little ultraviolet radiation of known physiologic significances appears in the sun's spectrum during the winter months." (For November, December and January the shortest waves detected ranged down to 305 units; for February, March and April, to 300; by May to 299.) These Chicago investigators also concluded that "the ultraviolet rays are absorbed to a significant degree by smoke in the atmosphere."

In the business section of Pittsburgh the limit of visibility is about one-tenth the limit of the adjoining open country. On days when the presence of smoke or fog is recorded, the chemical power of sunlight is only 75 per cent of what it is on days when no smoke or fog is recorded, other conditions being equal. The chemical action of daylight in Pittsburgh is about 60 per cent of what it is in Sewickley, a small residential town nearby. There is evidence that in general the chemical intensity of sunlight in large cities is 25 per cent less than it is in small towns. City fogs are more persistent than country fogs, principally because of their increased density due to the smoke that accumulates in them. In consequence there are fewer hours of sunshine in the cities than in the surrounding country. Sunshine is

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less intense in the city than in the country and the light of short wave length suffers the greater depletion.

The amounts of smoke which a city can throw into the air only to have most of it fall back again are very large. Some 35,000 tons of soot are deposited over Leeds, England, annually. Of this, 11 per cent falls in the immediate region where generated. The rest is carried for varying distances before being deposited. The wind acts as a scavenger. The dust and smoke cloud over Leeds is from 10 to 20 times as dense as in the nearby suburbs.

In Pittsburgh as much as 1,000 tons of soot per square mile were deposited throughout the city in 1912 and 1,400 tons in 1924. The worst offenders were the 100,000 homes.

IN New York City, at the lower end of Manhattan, where the air is very smoky, experiments conducted by the United States Public Health Service showed that on sunny days in January, 1927, the average loss of daylight due to smoke was 42 per cent at 8 A. M. and 18 per cent at noon. In June, it was 33 per cent at 8 A. M. and 6 per cent at noon. These figures relate to clear, sunny days. The loss was much greater on foggy days. However, these figures are for only one location in New York, and that a particularly smoky one, and cannot be taken as representative of the whole city.

Practically the whole of the smoke in an ordinary city is produced during the day. It is during these smokiest hours that the sun attempts to send through its vitalizing rays. Many of our cities resemble the long polar night of the north.

There is a similarity between sewage and smoke. In the past, and before our cities grew to such dimensions, little trouble was taken in the disposal of sewage. It was allowed to run to the nearest stream, trusting to nature to remove the impurities. This nature did till its facilities became overburdened resulting in such pollution of the water supplies that something had to be done about it. We have brought upon ourselves a somewhat similar condition with regard to smoke. The steady growth in magnitude of cities has increased the quantity to such an extent that the natural ventilators of nature are not able to cope with it. Some day we may do something about it.

One further consideration remains. What about window glass? And what about all these special glasses for transmitting ultraviolet rays?

Window glass should be used for what it can do, and that is much. When adequately cleaned it freely transmits the rays of sunlight classified under the first two groups; namely, the heat and visible rays. We need plenty of windows in the walls within which we "modern" mortals confine ourselves to give us light to see by; for the conservation of vision is also important in the pursuit of health and happiness. To do our work effectively we need plenty of light. Windows help to promote cleanliness of person and environment. Ample light exerts a psychological effect and makes us more cheerful. Add another use for windows, to open them for purposes of ventilation, and the benefits of windows have been enumerated. We cannot extend the use of window glass to include the prevention or cure of rickets. These queer, mysterious, sensitive ultraviolet rays balk at passing through ordinary window glass.

Since many readers will be disappointed at this, it may be well to quote an authority. In Circular LC235 of September 14, 1927, the United States Bureau of Standards says: "Biologically, it is found that ordinary window glass completely absorbs the short wave length ultraviolet rays of the sun which have therapeutic value in preventing rickets." In the January 14, 1928, third revision of the above letter it is stated specifically that "ordinary window glass shuts out the ultraviolet rays below 310 millimicrons." Keep them clean for other reasons and use them lavishly, for windows are our friends, but remember that window glass has its limitations as has everything else.

What about special ultraviolet transmitting glasses? They are all horses of another color. And there is some question whether the color will last. But they do transmit ultraviolet rays as window glass fails to do. Transmissibility varies. Quartz glass is the best. But try to buy enough for one large window in your house and unless you are a millionaire you will decide to go out of doors and take your ultraviolet rays standing. According to the United States Bureau of Standards (LC235, 3rd Revision) this is how these special glasses stack up when it comes to giving free passage to ultraviolet rays of 310 units (please note that this length is dangerously near the ineffective limit):

Quartz and Corex stop only 8 per cent of these rays; Vitaglass and Helioglass stop 50 per cent; Celoglass stops 80 per cent; Quartz-lite stops 95 per cent; Flexoglass stops 99 per cent and ordinary window glass keeps out 99.5 per cent. Respectively speaking, the rest of these 310 unit rays are passed through. Do your own subtractions. The percentages given are for new glass. Recent tests by the United States Bureau of Standards indicate that the amount of ultraviolet rays passed through decreases after some of these glasses have been in use for some time, in some cases the amount decreasing to one half of its original value.

But the complete failure of window glass to help us at all as regards the transmission of ultraviolet rays, and the only partial success of specially manufactured transmitting compositions should not make us lose any sleep. The problem is not one of glass in any form. Why worry about how the banquet is going and how the guests will enjoy your food and whether your clothes fit when you are a marooned shipwreck on an island a thousand miles from your nearest neighbor? Why worry about window glass being ineffectual and about special glasses costing so much when for so large a portion of the year there are few or no effective ultraviolet rays to transmit? You're isolated from them, especially in our northern latitudes.

It's sad but true, if you live where I do. "The investigations made this year by the Chicago Board of Health in collaboration with scientists of the University of Chicago," says an editorial in Hygeia for December, 1927, "have shown that *in most of the large cities in the northern part of the United States there are only two months of the year when sufficient ultraviolet rays come through from the sun to have any effect on the prevention of rickets.*" To say "only two months" may be wrong. But are three months or even six sufficient?

WHAT to do with your baby? Not so easy in winter. But there are a few warm sunny days even in winter and in cities. Don't miss taking baby out for as much of a sunbath as you can give it in the middle of the day, with as much of the little body exposed as is in keeping with the rest of its health. It does not take many minutes of this irradiation to do real good. For the rest, you may have to become an Esquimo (who is worse off as regards sunlight than you are) and depend upon fish. There are many palatable forms of cod liver oil at reasonable price.

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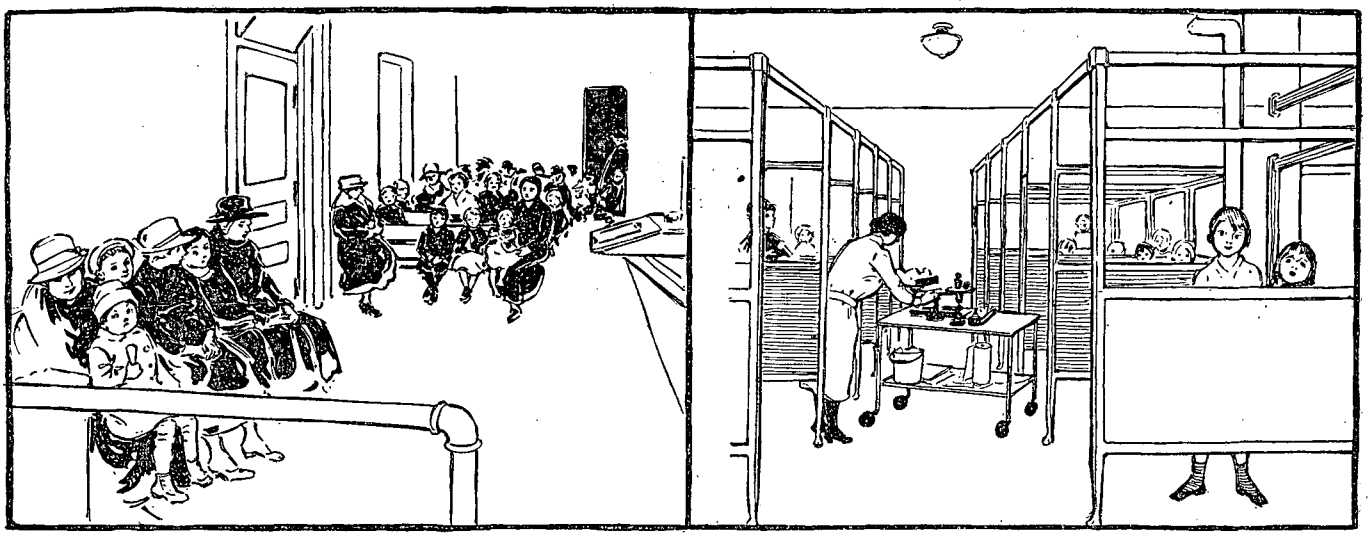
Pediatrists such as Professor Edwards Park of Johns Hopkins believe that rickets can be wholly prevented and great improvement in children's health assured if the expectant mother during pregnancy and the infant for its first two years receive suitable amounts of cod liver oil regularly in addition to their ordinary diet. And if your baby should manifest any of the bony characteristics mentioned earlier in this article, combined with other symptoms such as head sweating, restlessness, delayed dentition, softening of the skull bones, flabby muscles—well, any combination of these at their earliest detection ought to be enough to send you post-haste to a qualified physician.

If your child actually has rickets it can be treated by exposure to artificial ultraviolet light. For while "civilization" has come between us and natural sunlight, at the same time it has made possible our making artificial sunlight which can be used as a substitute when the original is not available.

In Germany where poverty prevents the widespread use of cod liver oil and the climate limits the ultraviolet rays very narrowly in amount and time of year, artificial illumination of children under two, by ultraviolet rays has become an established function of public clinics, dispensaries and health centers.

So after all, perhaps we are much better off than those old sun worshippers. What did they know about the glory of living under city clouds or about "stored sunlight?"

Cubicles for Outpatients



TO the problem of keeping sick children from swapping diseases and incurring unnecessary fatigue and excitement in the admission rooms of an outpatient department, the Children's Hospital of Michigan, in Detroit, offers its solution of a new type of waiting room. Before 1924 the department consisted of two long halls off which opened a series of small examining rooms. Young patients and their mothers waited on chairs or benches in the halls until their turn came and their numbers were called. The first section of the picture above is drawn from a photograph showing that hall some years ago "before it became overcrowded." Eventually the waiters were so many that nurses and doctors could hardly wedge their way past to the examining rooms. As a solution for this undesirable state of affairs it was decided to build new rooms for the department in the wedge-shaped spaces at each end of the hospital, which is built in the form of a letter x. Here there are cubicles, enclosed on three sides, which will comfortably contain a mother and two children. The upper part of the cubicle is of glass, which conserves light in the room and enables the workers to have continued supervision of waiting patients.

Each patient is met on entering by a nurse who assists with the formalities of admission and records and sorts out cases of suspected contagious diseases for isolation and immediate examination by the doctor. Then the patient is assigned to a numbered cubicle, to which his charts are taken, so that all is in readiness when the doctor comes. The aisles between the cubicles are wide enough to admit a cart equipped with scales, thermometer, etc., so that the nurse may weigh the child in advance, and all the doctor's time can be used in actual study of the patient. There is no confusion of calling out numbers, the time and attention of both staff and patient are conserved and at least a part of the waiting period is usefully employed, and the chance of contacts between sick children is minimized. This new outpatient department is only one story in height, and its roof, paved with quarry tile, is used as a porch for the outing and sunning of little patients on the hospital floors above.

"After four years' use we are more enthusiastic than we were in the beginning," writes Margaret A. Rogers, the superintendent. "The patient enters and works through a natural supervised progression to his destination. New patients after the interview with the social service department, and old patients after presentation of their card at the record room, which is near the entrance, pass on to the numbered cubicle. When the doctor arrives the patient's chart is in the proper room with temperature and weight recorded, marked with his cubicle number, and the patient may be located at once. This also eliminates the old shouting of names and numbers, which are often unrecognized by their owners."

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Toward Neighborhood Health

By HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

THE powerful champion of neighborhood health has appeared with the new year and those New Yorkers who have watched with envy the strides of Boston with health centers will take heart.

When the well-tested administrative experiment in decentralized district health offices originated by Dr. Goldwater in 1914 was wrecked by the atavistic degradation of the health department of New York in 1918, no vestige remained to serve as model or nucleus for future growth. The Bowling Green Neighborhood House had served to train a leader and when the Red Cross and other private agencies combined with the Health Department in 1921 to set up a health house in East Harlem, Kenneth Widdemer took hold with a vigor born of experience and confidence in the use of this communal instrument. Quite recently there has sprung up under the golden touch of the Milbank Fund, a similar though more ambitious center to salvage the population of the Bellevue-Yorkville region. At Judson Health Center and at Mulberry House two large areas of Italian population are guided in health and directed to suitable care and prevention of sickness. These are all just little spots of activity, not segments of a shapely whole. What more natural than that the city-wide and generously inclusive health agency of the community should accept the challenge of the situation and do though tardily what official health leadership failed to put through because of political know-nothings?

In announcing its plan to promote a neighborhood health program, the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association puts the problems as follows:

> But are we prepared to recommend just which way community health services can best be supplied and made effective? Which of the existing types of local health centers is it best to advocate, either theoretically or practically? Are all the sound possibilities of developing or coordinating local health services represented in the existing types? What part is the hospital of the future to play in the community health program? Where is it today the center of preventive medicine and health education or community welfare? Are the tuberculosis and baby health stations to remain for the most part in detached, isolated spots, with no contact with well-equipped hospital centers?

Great good will surely come of social leadership in reframing the mechanics of neighborhood health work and with the slowly revolving wheels of city government we may even find ourselves in another decade or two back where we were fourteen years ago, and ready to go forward with a convinced and capable health department.

No one familiar with the admirable Boston Health Units will be wholly contented with a plan which depends upon merely a voluntary association of health and welfare agencies under one roof. Health administration in New York and in our other large American cities will ultimately have to follow the example of London, with its centrally coordinated but locally independent borough health offices each serving a population of 150,000 to 200,000. Similarly the final decision as to location of district offices, the size of population to be served, the adequacy of the various activities provided will rest with the Department of Health. The city should no longer play the role of guest in a sort of social workers' boarding-house, but must soon take the burden of initiative, direction, and provide housing, a welcome permanency or continuity of management for neighborhood or district health work not only for a scant half million of Manhattan's crowded dwellers, but for all the people of each of the five boroughs.

This organization of the city health department on a district basis is long overdue and offers the greatest opportunity for improvement now facing the health commissioner. Perhaps the declaration of policy in this field by Harry Hopkins and his loyal board of directors of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association will rouse the spirit of competition in well-doing among the officers of the city government.

"PUBLIC HEALTH IS PUBLIC WEALTH—INVEST!" declares and exhorts the new poster in colors issued by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing from which the accompanying cut is taken. It will be supplied to health agencies at twenty-five cents a copy from the offices at 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The N. O. P. H. N. will also supply, without charge, a brief list of books on tuberculosis selected in conjunction with the National Tuberculosis Association, or reference reading lists on various phases of public health nursing. Please make your request specific!

A UNIQUE experiment in hospital administration is under trial at the Buffalo City Hospital, Buffalo, N. Y., in the plan of giving every patient discharged from the institution a "disability rating," following in its terminology the nomenclature of the New York State Industrial Commission—permanent total, temporary total, permanent partial, and temporary partial. "Like most of our procedures," writes Dr. Walter S. Goodale, the superintendent, "this one was born of experience. We are called upon for a great deal of court testimony, particularly in compensation cases. Court procedures meant a great loss of time and convenience. As a way out I hit upon the plan of detailing our assistant medical superintendent in charge of the admission and discharge department to examine all patients at time of discharge, noting carefully and checking the conditions recorded by the various specialists. This procedure gives him a complete bird's eye view of the case, from which he records the kind and percentage of physical disability in a brief abstract in affidavit form. In about 80 per cent of the cases we have found that this abstract will be accepted in court as medical testimony without the presence of the affiant." The information thus correlated has been found of benefit to public and private welfare organizations interested in a particular case, and of service as a sort of efficiency record giving the hospital itself a picture of what it has accomplished. Responsibility for tabulating the disability returns rests with the social service department which is in charge of a director and four associates, who are nurses, graduates of the hospital itself, with special postgraduate training. They do no field work, but interview every patient within the hospital, and act as a steering committee to connect those who declare themselves in need of assistance with the appropriate public or private agency. The local compensation committee has endorsed the policy concerning clinical records, which are considered confidential and are not submitted to persons outside the institution except on court subpoena, and the method of presenting in court these abstracts which give the pertinent outcome in the case of any particular patient.

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Jim's Own Story

By PAULINE V. YOUNG

I AM sixteen years old and I was a freshman in high school when I quit. . . . We live in an American neighborhood, and there were hardly any Jewish boys in my class. We used to live in a Jewish neighborhood, but we moved so I would keep away from the gang. So my mother figured it out.

"I don't like to bring my American friends around. They were born here and so were their parents. My mother speaks 'English' to them, and they make fun of her. When I ask her to leave them alone she says: 'They are only goyim (Gentiles), ain't I good enough to entertain them?' Sure, she 'entertains' them—at my expense. My father won't allow us to play ball on the lot. He says it's a waste of time and a disgrace to make such a lot of noise over nothing. He was raised in Poland. But then he don't believe in sweatshops either, but has never been anything but a cutter in a sweatshop. It's awfully embarrassing to bring any American friends to the house. In York it was different. We lived on the East Side, and those who were not Jews were something worse than that, and we did not care. My brother was raised there and he even went to Hebrew School, and to *shuhl* [the synagogue] with my dad.

"I hate to stick around here with no friends and nothing to do. My mother reported me to the judge of the Juvenile Court. He told me to stay off Augusta Street, and I did for a couple of days, but I was not going to be lonesome all by myself, and when I started to long for the guys, I ditched school and went out there to join them.

"They sure are a slick bunch, and we have a lot of fun together. We can play ball all we want to, besides there are many playgrounds in that neighborhood, and the directors are congenial fellows, but we don't stick around there all the time. We like to see the city, we like to go to the beaches. Some of the boys have a car and we drive around the city and sometimes go to the beach. We don't plan our doings, some one hits upon an idea and we all act on it. Sure we have to follow the leader. You got to, if you want to stick around a gang. Our leader is slick and smart, and his orders are worth taking. He is sure of himself, he plays fair and divides even. He is naturally boss.

"I got in trouble many times while with the gang. I was in Juvenile Hall several times. The longest I ever stayed there was two months. That was for truancy. But when I went back to my old school I started ditching school again. I did not like the teachers nor their subjects. Its pretty bad business to have a court record, the school knows about it, the guys tease you, and your parents worry and nag. Once I was arrested for fishing in a lagoon in a park. We didn't know we could not fish there, and we landed in Juvenile, but the night watchman looked us over and said: 'There ain't no use bringing them kids here, you just make criminals out-a them, and besides we ain't got no room.' And they let us go. Once a bunch of boys got arrested for trying to get money from milk bottles to go to Venice and have a good time. It costs at least a dollar to have fun. It costs fifty cents to rent a bathing suit. Sure, I have one but it got many rips and is the New Yorker kind. My mother figures that if I don't like that suit I won't go to the beach, but she has another guess coming. Then when you are at the beach you want to have fun at the Fun House, or at a show and some food. My parents don't believe in beaches and never go swimming. I don't like to stay home, and my parents don't understand what boys need, and they expect me to be old-fashioned and go to *shuhl*.

"I have never taken very much stock in religion. I don't see any sense in it. Our Sabbath begins Friday at sunset, but my father works in the shop all day Saturday. Oh, he sighs and hopes to be in the land of the 'faithful' before he dies, but that don't help him any. I don't see why a faithful people should suffer and be laughed at like we are. My parents nag me to go to *shuhl* on holidays. They make many sacrifices to keep their traditions, but they don't mean anything much in my life. It's different with my brother, he got a start in New York in a Jewish community, but I can't be friends with Gentiles at school and at work and stick up for European ways too. That's just why I don't like to stay home. I don't want to hurt my parents and I can't follow their advice."

JIM is in almost daily contact with two divergent cultures: the older Jewish culture symbolized by the

IN The Survey of January 15 (page 507) Pauline V. Young reported the story of Jim's Mother—A Study in the Conflict of Cultures, an interview obtained during the course of a study of the Jewish community of Los Angeles under the direction of the Department of Sociology of the University of Southern California. In response to many requests, Mrs. Young here presents the plight of Jim himself, in his own words, with an interpretation. "In this study," she writes, "I was particularly concerned with the problems of an immigrant community, viewing it from the cultural, economic, social, and religious aspects. The conflict of cultures was the outstanding feature of the American life of its members, and the study was directed toward an undertaking of the social processes involved in that conflict."

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home, and the newer American culture symbolized by the school, industry and the larger community. The East-European Jewish family is a traditional social institution with a strict and thoroughgoing code of behavior. It is difficult to find the strictly traditional Jewish home in America because of the many changes the family have to make to adapt themselves to the American social environment. Family obligations, nevertheless, are still set in the foreground, and individual members are expected to conform to family traditions. Keen consciousness of family relations is associated with the individual's identification with family interests, practices and observances.

Courtesy of the New York Times

The immigrant family faces a new culture

In the larger community, however, Jim tends to become an "American citizen." The English language and the associations at school open up to him a new world of social practices, customs, attitudes, and social values. This newer culture fosters, moreover, traits of independence, personal resourcefulness, individuality, and cultivates desires for personal distinction. When these traits are displayed in the home they clash with the older established order of life and tend to break it up. Jewish communal and family life in Europe developed and utilized much the same personality traits. All of the behavior of the individual was controlled by one general social code.

In America immigrant parents and children live for the most part in different worlds of interests and experiences. They hardly understand each other and they can not fully appreciate each other's feelings, and therefore, are unsympathetic to each other. There is little opportunity or incentive to share their individual experiences since they lack the common background necessary for mutually interpreting them. Their divergent cultures place them in different universes of discourse.

Frequently one sees Jewish parents struggling to adopt the new culture. The reverence with which they cherish their religious and racial freedom in America inevitably opens the doors to many outside influences which change the situation at home particularly with regard to the control of the children. Yet they find it almost impossible to divest themselves of their heritages. These are habits deeply rooted in mind and body. They modify or even discontinue some social practices, but on the whole they are the victims of their social habits. A new code of behavior independent of their old cultures is exceedingly difficult to formulate, and many uncertainties and inconsistencies characterize their behavior. Not infrequently we find the parents as well as the children suffering from mental conflicts as a result of the irreconcilable social and cultural forces which they encounter in America. Tenacious observance of old and often meaningless traditions may be only a symbol of a mental conflict on the part of the parent. They may, indeed, be self-defenses against the demands of Americanized children.

The situation is accentuated by the inability to resist successfully the invasion of the newer culture rapidly acquired by the children. The home situation requires a redefinition of the situation, but neither parents nor children nor outside social agencies are able to reorganize and integrate at will the incompatible elements. In the end each member comes to be bound by his personal code of behavior. Family chaos then replaces customary regulated behavior, and discipline is lost. In the case of the Jewish boy, emotional and family life produce strong attachments to the home. The cultural gap between parents and children may not, therefore, express itself in as wide a variety of conflicts and anti-social behavior as may be observed among certain other groups.

Jim seeks to escape the results of family life through association with the gang. The gang is a unique and relatively independent unit with its own code of behavior. Jim can satisfy his dominant wishes in the gang provided he is prepared to follow the leader and stand by him through the various vicissitudes. Jim was in custody of the juvenile court several times. But he represents a type of personal disintegration due to divergent cultural forces which is a challenge to the current philosophy and methods of dealing with juvenile offenders.

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IN THE PAST quarter century, while the general tide of population has been city-ward there has been a noteworthy increase in the Jewish farming population in the United States, declares The Interpreter, the monthly bulletin of the Foreign Language Information Service. This drift is especially interesting in that it has come about within a racial community of city-dwellers, tradesmen and artisans, proverbial migrants and wanderers. In 1900 the Jewish farming population in the United States numbered 1,000; in 1927, 75,000. An earlier Jewish colonization movement, starting in the 1880's launched sixteen agricultural projects in Arkansas, Colorado, Kansas, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, North and South Dakota, and Oregon, of which only one has survived. The newer movement, starting later, has proceeded slowly but soundly. During the past twenty-five years the Jewish Agricultural Society has played an important part in this, advising in the selection of land and equipment, and aiding in agricultural education and sanitation. In a single generation Jewish land settlements have grown from 200 to 15,000 families, who till approximately a million acres of land.

A COMPREHENSIVE plan for research to cast light upon the problems of housing, for the middle-class families of communities as well as those least able to obtain livable homes, has been announced by the Institute for Research in Land Economics and Public Utilities, affiliated with Northwestern University, under the direction of Richard T. Ely. From three to six areas will be selected which can be studied intensively, representative of different typical conditions, such as an industrial area, an expensive residential district, the neighborhood surrounding a college, or some particular community development. These will be examined carefully as to size, the nature and rapidity of their growth, the character of their populations, including incomes, literacy, occupation and so on; the conditions which influence home ownership and tenancy, the economic limits of urban home ownership and the extent to which it might be stimulated, and the various aspects of tenancy. In conjunction with these there will be a study of European and American experiments in housing, such as Ealing Village Park in England; Helleran, near Dresden, Germany; the Bellerica Garden Suburb of Boston; Goodyear Heights, Akron, Ohio, and Forest Hills and Sunnyside, New York. Each of these will be analyzed to see what of value they offer to the specific problems under consideration, and toward a pragmatic approach to such general questions as public versus private effort in the housing field; government subsidy of private enterprise; limited dividend corporations, and so on. A grant of $37,500 by the Carnegie Corporation of New York has been made toward the study and it is hoped that other similar appropriations may make it possible to extend the program. "What we have in mind," Professor Ely declared, "is to establish standards and methods; if we achieve this and stimulate others, our work acquires national and perhaps even international significance. We feel that now what is needed above all else is research, so when development takes place it may be along sound lines."

EVEN on holidays the beautifully swept paths about Rio de Janeiro are likely to be deserted except for a few foreigners. The bay and beach at the city gates may be comparatively unused, while the young people seem all to be at the movies or "footing" along the avenues which have given that South American city the name of the little Paris. The Girls' Reserve secretary who arrived there in 1922 was confronted with a problem of working out some organization which might be analogous to the American ways, but should be distinctly Brazilian, designed to accord with the customs of a country where girls seldom attend school after they are fifteen and are married young, and where girls and boys are allowed little freedom from a rigid code of chaperonage. The result of five years work has been the organization of the Jovens do Triangulo Azul (Blue Triangle Girls) with clubs and ceremonies distinctly their own, with health and social programs, an annual festival which is a pioneer adventure in pageantry in Brazil, a library, picnics, swimming parties, and other activities which girls in North American cities are likely to take for granted. "I felt especially encouraged recently when one club asked for a hike of some distance," writes Myrtle King, of the staff of the Y. M. C. A. in Rio de Janeiro. "Heretofore the high heels have made walking impossible and even now high-heeled shoes will be worn to the end of the car-line and then be changed."

IT HAS remained for the Institute on Parental Education recently held at Raleigh, N. C., to point out that though it may be safely assumed that all children have two parents, the existing emblems and most of the existing discussion, seem aimed to give the impression that progenitors exist only in the female. The institute, accordingly, adopted for itself the emblem above, drawn by Virginia Lay Hawkins, for this first state-wide meeting on the problems centering in family life, sponsored by the Board of Charities and Public Welfare, the Board of Health, the Department of Public Instruction, the North Carolina Federation of Women's Clubs, and the universities, and assisted by an advisory council representing a dozen other social organizations. The physical, emotional, and intellectual development of children, and the social background of family relationships were discussed by leaders in the respective fields.

AMONG the scores of ways of having a good time suggested in the new handbook of the Recreation Department of the city of Oakland, Cal., lies an intriguing mention of the "municipal costume department," which furnishes not robes for judges or aldermen, but a large stock of costumes for the use of public schools, playgrounds, and community centers, under the direction of an expert designer. Six rooms on the upper floor of one of the city's field houses are used to provide a large workroom, a dye room, an accessory room, and three storerooms where costumes authentic in color and style are kept catalogued until they are needed for plays, pageants and pantomimes. Some of the other activities which the city fosters —municipal golf, tennis, tournaments for boys and girls, boating, baseball, hiking, camps in the high Sierras and the Plumas National Forest, community centers and clubs for children and adults, are suggested in this series of thumbnail illustrations taken from the handbook just issued by the department, which is under the direction of R. W. Robertson, superintendent of recreation in Oakland, and director of physical education in the public schools.

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Books in Our Alcove

Courtesy, Brentano's News Notes

The Confirmed Optimist

HEALTH PROBLEMS IN ORGANIZED SOCIETY, *by Sir Arthur Newsholme. P. S. King & Son, London. 253 pp. Price 12s.*

SURVEY readers, familiar with the direct and persuasive style of Sir Arthur Newsholme, will find familiar texts included in this collection of his addresses and lectures of the past six or eight years. The chief bond of this faggot of fuel sticks for keeping public health fires burning, is that of the ethical argument. The changes are rung repeatedly on the preventability of tuberculosis, alcoholism, and venereal diseases, and from many different, but closely related points of view, this veteran administrator leads us to the belief that without convictions of mind, and an urge of the spirit, neither science, law, or health-officer efficiency, will bring all the rewards society is entitled to.

He wisely urges upon us the case method of research in public health to reveal the preponderant role of character in disease prevention. As he says, "Even when we consider the relatively narrow aim of preventing disease, it is the diseases the prevention of which depends on socially moral conduct against which so far the least success has been secured." And again, "There must be sacrifice in some measure for all. For the anti-social whose egoism and selfishness block the way of hygienic and moral progress this sacrifice must be more or less obligatory; for the majority it represents a real gain in fullness of life."

His social and statistical, as contrasted with commercial and emotional, views of alcoholism break out with a multitude of arguments which tend to make Americans look with something akin to pride upon our own experiment.

His Values in Preventive Medicine are well known to health workers in the United States and we all subscribe heartily to his opinion that "the prevention of the spread of tuberculosis is dependent in the last issue on the moral willingness of the patient and his family to cooperate in the necessary measures." And when dealing with that dangerous word "efficiency," he reminds us that "Corruption has killed its thousands. Lack of vision, carelessness, selfishness have killed their hundreds of thousands," calling our attention vigorously to the supreme value of qualified, trained, professional, full-time health officers upon whom the progress of the science and art of preventive medicine depends.

He defends the right of the majority under representative government to limit the freedom of a minority which develops selfish practices and he quotes wisely from John Locke, "Every man by consenting with others to make one body politic under one government, puts himself under an obligation to every one of that society to submit to the determination of the majority, and to be concluded by it."

He lays down four excellent rules to guide those who would restrict personal conduct by law: "(1) The restriction called for must carry with it preponderant public opinion, persistently expressed. (2) To justify practicable interference with personal habits, the evil must be one of serious national magnitude. (3) The restriction must be such that it may reasonably be expected that the opposing minority will steadily decrease or disappear when the law is enacted, and that a considerable class of persistent 'passive resisters' will not be created. (4) The evil must be one for which the provision of recreative outlets, moral suasion and education cannot be expected to provide a remedy within a time which is reasonable in view of the magnitude of the mischief accruing while compulsory action is delayed."

He quotes with excellent discretion from the opinion of our Supreme Court in 1889 in a way to make the wobbly interpreters of social statistics blush for their pusillanimity: "The statistics of every state show a greater amount of crime and misery attributable to the use of ardent drinks obtained at these liquor shops than to any other source." "By the general consensus of opinion of every civilized and Christian community, there are few sources of crime and misery in society equal to the dram shop, where intoxicating liquors in small quantities to be drunk at the time, are sold indiscriminately to all persons applying." (Crowley v. Christensen, U. S. 1889-92.)

The chapter on compulsory insurance leaves us quite unconvinced, as in spite of its honest object there has been steady deterioration of the quality of medical care under it in England.

In dealing with venereal diseases Sir Arthur Newsholme is at his best, developing his favorite thesis on the inseparability of technical and ethical efforts for public health. Many a priest and minister, teacher, nurse, and social worker could use with advantage the chapter on The Community and Sexual Morality.

As one might expect of a confirmed optimist and doer of health jobs for his beloved country, he disagrees with the lugubrious pronouncements on birth-rates and the future of England of the contemplative Dean Inge.

Altogether a readable series of chapters, a good register of contemporary or recently past Anglo-Saxon health history, and full of a Christian philosophy.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

Chicago Builders

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS IN THE CHICAGO BUILDING TRADES, *by Royal E. Montgomery. University of Chicago Press. 340 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

CONSIDERING the importance of the building industry because of its size and because its product is so essential to human life, it is strange that the economies of the industry and its labor problems have received so little

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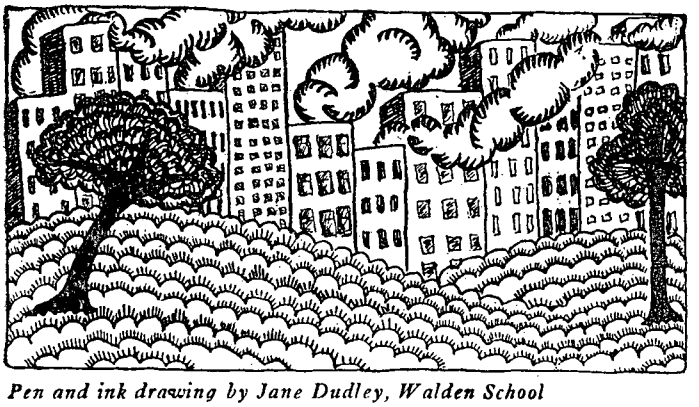
study. Mr. Montgomery's book is, therefore, a very welcome contribution to our too scant knowledge in an important field.

Part of the author's task has been to trace the history of the employers' associations in the Chicago building trades as well as that of the building unions, and to study the relationship between them. His picture discloses the fact that labor has been much more able to form effective associations than capital. The employers' groups were feeble until forced by the aggressiveness of labor to form a well-knit and forceful association.

After a study of the vicissitudes of collective bargaining in the construction industry of Chicago, Mr. Montgomery comes to the conclusion that the ends of justice, as well as the public welfare, are better served if a strong group of workers is faced with a strong employers' association, and vice versa. Preponderant strength on either side is likely to lead to tyranny and abuse.

The building of houses differs vitally from other industries in that it is essentially local; that is to say, a building erected in New York does not, to any appreciable extent, compete with buildings in Chicago or San Francisco. Unlike practically every other industry, the employer in the building trades has little to fear in the competition of employers elsewhere. It is very important for him that wages and conditions shall uniformly apply to all employers in the same locality, but he is indifferent to terms of employment in other cities. This has made it much easier for building mechanics to control conditions in a given market, and has led to the toleration of practices which would probably have been bitterly contested had the industry, in any one place, faced nation-wide competition.

At periodical intervals legislative committees have devoted a good deal of energy to ventilating the abusive practices which have been permitted to exist in the industry. Mr. Montgomery devotes one of the three parts into which the book is divided to a consideration of these abuses, their origin and importance. As a preliminary survey of conditions in one locality, this study is very valuable. Its usefulness will be very much enhanced if followed by even more comprehensive investigation in other places.



Pen and ink drawing by Jane Dudley, Walden School

A strike occurred in the Chicago building trades in 1921, which developed into a *cause célèbre* and attracted the attention of the entire country. Growing out of an arbitration award of Judge Landis, which was rejected by a large part of the industry, the strike led to the formation of a powerful Citizens' Committee—a body outside of the industry—which attempted to control its industrial relations.

The story of Chicago's building trades would be incomplete without a careful study of this controversy and of all of the factors which contributed to complicate it. Mr. Montgomery gives us a fair statement of the facts. He does not, however, give an adequate picture of the early activities of the Citizens' Committee, and the methods by which it is alleged that its control of the industry was sought to be enforced. In its social implication, this was much the most important aspect of the controversy. Had the committee continued to use the methods which it is claimed were employed in the early days of the strike, the building industry of Chicago would have furnished the country with a spectacle of a desperate class struggle the spread of which to other cities would have been alarming. It would have been very useful if the author had gone more fully into the disputed questions relating to this and other phases of the committee's work.

On the whole, the book is an excellent one, making a very necessary beginning in the more intensive study of the problems of industrial relations in one of our most important industries.

ALEXANDER M. BING
City Housing Corporation, New York

Religions and Missions

THE FUTURE OF CHRISTIANITY, *by Sir James Marchant. Harper. 300 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
CAN THE CHURCHES UNITE? *by William E. Barton, Lynn Harold Hough, etc. Century. 230 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
RELIGIOUS LIBERTY—THE GREAT AMERICAN ILLUSION, *by Albert C. Dieffenbach. Morrow. 205 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
RELIGIONS PAST AND PRESENT, *by Bertram E. A. Windle. Century. 308 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE STORY OF BUDDHA AND BUDDHISM, *by Brian Brown. McKay. 290 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE STORY OF CONFUCIUS, *by Brian Brown. McKay. 265 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE ADVENTURE OF THE CHURCH, *by Samuel McCrea Cavert. Missionary Education Movement. 256 pp. Price $1.00 and $.60 postpaid of The Survey.*
A STRAIGHT WAY TOWARD TOMORROW, *by Mary Schauffler Platt. Central Committee of the United Study of Foreign Missions. 224 pp. Price $.50 and $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
PLEASE STAND BY, *by Margaret Applegarth. Central Committee of the United Study of Foreign Missions. $.50 and $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
AS PROTESTANT LATIN AMERICA SEES IT, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement. 170 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
CHINA HER OWN INTERPRETER, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement. 170 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
JAPAN SPEAKS FOR HERSELF, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement 140 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
AN INDIAN APPROACH TO INDIA, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement. 186 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
THINKING WITH AFRICA, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement 184 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
VOICES FROM THE NEAR EAST, *edited by Milton Stauffer. Missionary Education Movement. 141 pp. Price $.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE first volume is the editorial product of Sir James Marchant, who has gathered together articles by fifteen outstanding churchmen, all British but one. As might be expected, views appear which are somewhat hard to harmonize. Each author has taken a subject which has some historical connection with the Christian religion, but which is unlike the subject treated by each of the others, and tells us what the Christianity of tomorrow will be along that line. So, tomorrow will bring us a Christianity in which the theologian will be subordinated to the pastor (H. Wheeler Robinson, Regent's Park College, London); theology and philosophy will make their individual contributions to human knowledge, but will increasingly meet and mingle (R. S. Franks, Western College, Bristol); God will be seen as more personal, yet transcendent (C. F. D'Arcy, archbishop of Armagh); Christ will be understood as perfectly human, yet perfectly divine (W. R. Matthews, King's College, London); and so on. The best thing in the book is the introduction, in which the Right Reverend Arthur C. Headlam, bishop of Gloucester,

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draws together all the disconnected elements of the volume and makes them remotely homogeneous.

The same sort of volume—in principle—could be produced by having Babe Ruth write on The Philosophy of Home Runs; Walter Johnson on The Psychology of Speed and Control; Ty Cobb on The Technique of Base Running, and so on; and combining them all under the title, The Future of Baseball, with an introduction by, say, Grantland Rice. No doubt such a volume would have some value. It would not, however, be a book, but only a collection of articles. Worse, it would not be baseball; for it would deal only with the professional side of the sport, and any American knows that professional baseball is merely an institutionalized offshoot of the back-lot diamond. So, though a book about Christianity may be written by eminent men in the Christian Church, yet if they fail to present it as something deeper and bigger and higher than an institution or a philosophy or a collection of doctrines, they are presenting not Christianity but its outward symbol. Perhaps the future of Christianity rests with the church. But perhaps, also, it rests with the hearts of common folks, both inside the church and outside it.

SINCE the World Conference on Faith and Order at Lausanne last August, the world has adopted a sort of "I-told-you-so" attitude. Much talk, many resolutions, great caution, and few results. Those who want to read the talk, written before the conference, by men who attended it, may purchase Can the Churches Unite? It is a symposium, and boasts some notable names: William E. Barton, Lynn Harold Hough, James I. Vance, Bishop Francis McConnell, and others. It is a hope and a faith; if it fails to come to grips with the financial, political, doctrinal, and personal obstacles that prevent the churches from uniting, still it is a good hope and a strong faith. The reader wishes it might be as easy to unite the churches as to read the book.

IT now becomes evident that terms such as "liberal" and "modernist" are flexible and relative. Most of us have had the idea that Fosdick and Cadman and Coffin were liberal and probably also modernist; and that beyond question The Christian Century is a liberal journal. Indeed, we have been so informed, in unmistakable language, by gentlemen of the more conservative school. But now comes Albert C. Dieffenbach (Religious Liberty, the Great American Illusion) who specifically names these men and this journal, and others, as traitors to the cause of religious liberty. The book will be a joy to those who like to see a man tear his own heart to tatters in disappointment. The suspicion arises that Dr. Dieffenbach would enjoy nothing better than a good honest theological scrap. "The only thing one rightly tolerates," says he, "is a triviality. The best representatives of tolerance are the mollusca and the feebleminded." But he is so sure of his position, and he writes with such fire and such feeling, that he almost convinces us—almost.

BERTRAM E. A. WINDLE has combined a series of lectures to form a volume he calls Religions, Past and Present. It discusses the origin of religion in general, goes on to deal with the evolution of various types of religion—magic, animal worship, mystery cults, ancestor worship, Buddhism, etc.—and ends with a chapter designed to reveal Christianity as the flower and summit of monotheistic belief. The book is full of facts. But the reader looks in vain for a dramatic picture of a human family struggling after God, if haply they might find Him, though He is not far from every one of us. The conception of each religion reviewed is mainly factual; it is seen as if it consisted of rituals and buildings and priesthoods. But the cavemen knew better than that. They bowed to wood and stone, but their hearts cried out for a reality above and beyond themselves; wood and stone were mere symbols. Christians who have a religion deeper than church or priest are going to be disappointed with this book; not on account of what is in it, but on account of what is not in it.

AS one reads the stories of great religious leaders—Gautama, Confucius, Jesus—one is impressed with two things: first, the simplicity, the sympathy, the democracy, of the man himself, and the simple, practical quality of his teachings; and second, the overpowering and stupefying mass of legend and metaphysical vagary that succeeding generations of reverent but dull and lazy followers heap upon him. The leader preaches spiritual unity with God; his followers make of it a hopelessly intricate scheme of salvation. The leader abandons ritual and formula and complicated dogma and priesthoods; and to preserve his exact shade of meaning, his followers rear an ecclesiastical and theological structure more deadly than the one their leader abolished. Those who have read chapter XXVI of Wells' Outline of History and desire to know more about Buddha and Confucius, may profitably read two volumes compiled and edited by Brian Brown (The Story of Buddha and The Story of Confucius). Here one may learn for himself the life of these two teachers, and see the beauty and nobility of their teachings. Buddha was a mystic; and his psalms and sermons, and those of his followers, have much in them that is highly fanciful, allegorical, and picturesque; little that is matter-of-fact. Confucius was a government official, and his precepts are more immediate and practical.

From Mukerji's A Son of Mother India, published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

SAMUEL M. CAVERT has written, and the Missionary Education Movement has published, a book called The Adventure of the Church. It is (a) an historical review of Christian missions, home and foreign; (b) a plea for Christian brotherhood as an adventure in world peace

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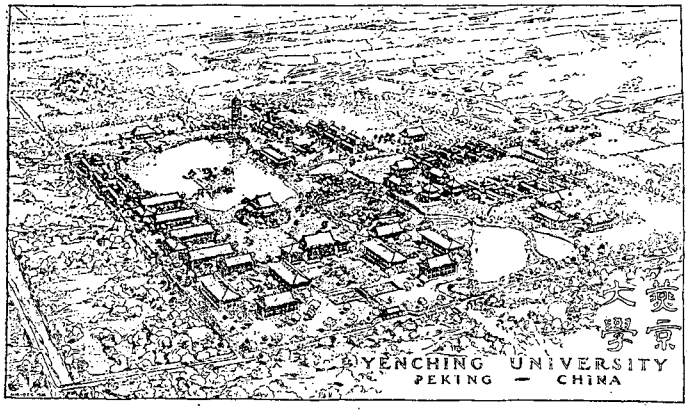
and unity. It has some purple patches of oratory; but it also has an abundance of plain fact and vivid imagery.

THE Central Committee of the United Study of Foreign Missions has issued two companion study books. One, A Straight Way Toward Tomorrow, by Mary Schauffler Platt, is intended for adult use; the other, Please Stand By, by Margaret Applegarth, is for juniors. Each book covers the entire foreign mission field. Each is fully illustrated with photographs. Each is pure propaganda, but accurately written and easy to read.



A mission plant. Illustration from China—a Nation in Evolution, by Paul Monroe. Published by Macmillan

ABOUT the only place where one can find the old, conventional picture of a foreign missionary today is in a comic magazine. But there was probably some justification for the old picture; it grew, in part, out of impressions gained from people who took a flying trip to some foreign field, and then dashed frantically homeward to rush into lectures and sermons and print. Of course such impressions would be lacking in accuracy, in background, and in vision. Now we can get the picture from the other end. It is presented to us in a series of six paper-bound books, edited by Milton Stauffer, and published by the Missionary Education Movement, New York. There is one book each from Japan, China, India, Africa, Latin-America, and the Near East. Each book is the product of ten or a dozen native authors. The viewpoint of each is not the rather standardized viewpoint of an American giver of missionary help; rather it is the new and fresh and disturbing viewpoint of the native receivers of that help. The net effect is apt to be unpleasant to a smug reader, complacently aware of his not-too-recent missionary contribution. But here at least he can get insight and vision and facts; and get them, not from an interpreter, but hot from the hearts of those most vitally interested.

CHARLES S. BROWN

Chicago Theological Seminary

Wide Angles on Religion

CHRISTIANITY, PAST AND PRESENT. *By Charles Guignebert. Macmillan. 507 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

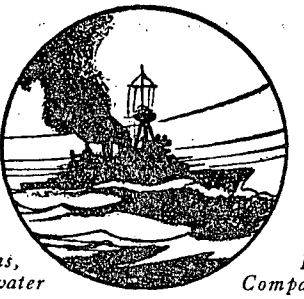
THE title of this book is a misnomer, for Professor Guignebert (of the University of Paris) confines his attention to the Roman Catholic Church. He barely mentions Protestantism. Religion, he says, unfolds itself according to laws similar to those which dominate the life and existence of organic beings. It remains vital only as long as it adjusts itself to the circumstances and necessities of the changing day. If it does not adapt itself, it is doomed to death.

With this thesis as a basis, he unfolds the history of Catholicism. Roman Catholicism imposed itself upon Oriental features of Christianity by developing a firm doctrinal tradition and a political and hierarchical authority in the papacy. Refusing to adjust itself to any of the movements of the western scientific spirit, it has become a church of immovable tradition and of conservative authority. It will hardly survive, he holds, because it lacks response to the constant demands of the modern age for free inquiry into the problems of life; it will die. Protestantism as the first successful opposition of Catholic institutionalism has laid the foundation of the religion of the future, which will be undogmatic and personal. "The time has come," says Guignebert, "when every one carves out for himself under the label of Christianity a religion made to his own measure and to suit his personal needs."

The signs of our times do not seem to show Catholicism at the end of its career. Moreover, strong doubts arise against the validity of Guignebert's theory. One cannot view the history of Christianity only under biological aspects. Guignebert over-emphasizes the influence of the environment upon the Christian religion. Equally able scholars hold that Christianity owes its character as a religion of salvation not to an adaptation to the religious yearnings of the people of the ancient Graeco-Roman world, but to the personal experiences and to the activities of Jesus and of Paul. They have inspired Christianity in all its periods. The history of Christianity, Roman Catholicism included, is the history of a constant struggle of personal religion against institutionalism. Guignebert prophesies the defeat of institutionalism, but not of personal religion.

WILHELM PAUCK

Chicago Theological Seminary



From the jacket of Navies and Nations, by Hector C. Bywater

Published by Houghton, Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass.

Out of Ripe Experience

RURAL RELIGION AND THE COUNTRY CHURCH, *by Warren H. Wilson. Revell, 1927. 141 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE is a book of beauty, insight and wisdom, by the dean of rural church leaders. More than twenty-five years ago Dr. Wilson made the study of a rural parish the subject of a Ph.D. thesis in Columbia University. Ever since then, he has continued the exploration of the social and spiritual adventures of the American farmer, extending his researches to every section of the United States. He recruited, organized, and trained the first rural sociological surveyors. He has led scores of men into the rural pastorate. He has lifted the consideration of rural life problems into a high place in the deliberation of national church councils. As a teacher in Columbia University, he has interpreted the spiritual and educational needs of farmers to thousands of budding teachers. As director of the Town and Country Department of the Presbyterian Board of National Missions he has been so persistent, aggressive, and

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unconventional in championing the farmer's cause that the staid old Presbyterian Church has twice tried to dismiss him from its service. On both occasions, however, the national organization "heard from the country" in such terms of affection and appreciation of Dr. Wilson that the dismissal was rescinded, and he found himself stronger than ever after weathering the storm.

Out of these years of struggle and exploration, he has given us the ripened fruit of his experience and thinking, in ten essays in which he interprets the beauty and misery, the joy and sorrow of farmers and their churches. Each chapter is rich in illustrations and concrete examples. The book as a whole is in no sense a sociological treatise, but rather a collection of personal insights and appreciations. Much of the writing attains poetic heights in its appeal to the imagination and the emotions. This is especially true of the chapter entitled Spiritual Community Artists, in which he describes a half dozen men and women who have been centers of help and inspiration to their farmer neighbors. Toward the close of his book, Dr. Wilson proposes a plan of national administration for country churches—a plan which deserves the most serious consideration of church officials everywhere. All in all, it is a wise and human book, easy to read and hard to forget.

FRED EASTMAN

Chicago Theological Seminary

Drawing by Jane Dudley, Walden School

Looking Backward

THE EVOLUTION OF PENOLOGY IN PENNSYLVANIA, *by Harry E. Barnes. Bobbs Merrill. 414 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN this new history of The Evolution of Penology in Pennsylvania, Mr. Barnes gives us a painstaking and minute chronicle of the past. The first seventy-five pages contain a clear statement of the development of penological theory and practice in the early history of the state, with an account of the origin of the judicial organization, the methods of administering criminal justice, and of the penal system. As one reads he can detect the liberal thinker applying his philosophy to the events he is recording.

These early sections of the book are valuable for the student of social science and of penology in all parts of the world. Pennsylvania, a century ago, was the stage on which a drama of world-wide interest and significance was performed and the early chapters present an accurate, comprehensive and effective picture of the great movement in penology which sent the word "Pennsylvania" round the world.

Then the book begins to falter. The nearer Mr. Barnes approaches our own day, the more sketchy and less accurate he becomes. Thus, in treating the important subject of parole—which for over three years has been one of the most widely discussed aspects of penal affairs in Pennsylvania—the author wholly neglects to identify recent forces and tendencies. True, he discusses the work of the Pennsylvania Parole Commission created in 1925. But he confines himself to the single aspect of institutional parole from the state prisons and reformatories, and wholly omits the vastly more extensive system of judicial parole from county prisons.

Again, while Mr. Barnes records in trivial detail the origins of the first indeterminate sentence law, which was enacted nearly twenty years ago and lasted only a year, he ignores significant current tendencies which have expressed themselves in the locally famous Ludlow Indeterminate Sentence Act, passed in 1923 and maintained during the past two legislative sessions against the bitter attacks of its foes. He briefly dismisses this controversial piece of legislation as a result of "activities of friends of reform," without troubling to ascertain who these friends may be or what forces they represent.

The same inadequacy marks his discussion of segregation and classification of prisoners. He passes over without mention the progressive and successful efforts made during the past two legislative sessions for the commitment of women to separate institutions, and the right newly conferred on the Welfare Department to transfer women prisoners. He omits any allusion to the recent provision for a special institution for defective delinquents, whereby the last legislature registered its recognition of the need for mental classification of prisoners.

The author's sense of values displays a curious lack of balance. The Allegheny County Workhouse is given unqualified praise—despite the fact that its discipline is antiquated and its provision for women prisoners inadequate. But the State Industrial Home for Women at Muncy, recognized by penologists as the most conspicuous example of enlightened administration in the state, receives only incidental mention.

The book, in fact, bears all the earmarks of having been finished ten years ago with but a feeble gesture toward bringing it up to date. We wonder if, perhaps, this may not be at the root of its shortcomings, particularly for those of us who, however great our interest as students in the history of penology, are still living in the year of grace 1928, and at work in the difficult field of persuading public opinion toward a modern and humane penal practice based on Pennsylvania's fine past. The valuable historical material in Mr. Barnes' book would be made all the more significant and useful by a conscientious digging for contemporary facts which would make it a more trustworthy guide of present, as well as an admirable history of past, events.

FLORENCE L. SANVILLE

Secretary, Pennsylvania Committee on Penal Affairs, Philadelphia

B. A. as Well as R. N.

A SOUND ECONOMIC BASIS FOR SCHOOLS OF NURSING, *by Mary Adelaide Nutting. Putnam's. 372 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THAT any book bearing the imprint of Miss Nutting's name would be received with grateful appreciation by nurses was inevitable. Wisdom, clear thinking, a tempered moderation of statement, vision, and imagination would most certainly be within its pages. This book, however, contains a much wider appeal. Its title, A Sound Economic Basis for Schools of Nursing, immediately makes it important to the increasingly large number of people who have discovered that nurses and the means by which nurses are prepared for the part they play in the community in which they practice, must be given the same thoughtful consideration that is bestowed on other noteworthy factors of community life. In these papers—gathered together for the first time from publications in which they have appeared over a period of twenty-five years—are to be found, trenchantly expressed, the larger problems which have arisen in the rapid develop-

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ment of schools of nursing. Says Miss Nutting's preface:

The effort to do honest educational work in a place and a medium designed and conducted for other purposes has brought about complex situations and curiously baffling problems. . . . Advances in the education of nurses have throughout history meant the breaking down of many preconceived ideas and the reluctant surrender of cherished beliefs.

Three chapters are given to nursing and public health. Concerning this Miss Nutting says:

Under most favorable conditions, instruction and training in public health work offer as yet all the problems inherent in working out a new phase of education. Throughout the whole field of public health nursing, one fact stands out more and more clearly, and it is that the development of this field in many important ways is being profoundly affected by the work of our training schools. A new test is being applied to their product from every standpoint; for in this field nurses are needed who bring not only a special training but a much sounder preliminary education than most hospitals think it necessary or are able to require. College women with nurses' training are asked for continually, and some way must be found of making it worth while for more of them to enter our training schools.

Hospital trustees, members of committees concerned with nursing and community-minded people at large will find this succinct record of wise and dispassionate observation well worth their perusal. A. M. C.

Pen and ink drawing by Anna Fleisher, Walden School

RUN OF THE SHELVES

A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

Edited by Halle Schaffner

WHICH COLLEGE? *by Rita S. Halle. Macmillan. 268 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE is an admirable Baedeker of the factors which should determine a student's choice of a college, not only in relation to his own qualifications and equipment but from what he expects to get out of it. "There are almost as many kinds of colleges as there are individual characters and needs." The first chapters take into account large and small colleges, denominational aspects, coeducation, athletics, fraternities, expense. The remainder of the volume gives the main points of each college, listed alphabetically in every state. Secondary and high-school teachers, along with parents and children, will welcome this new guidepost to the right campus.

THE STABILIZATION OF THE MARK, *by Hjalmar Schact. Adelphi. 247 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is a source book of use to students of economics and international affairs, written by a German authority after the war.

A STUDY ON THE MINIMUM WAGE, *by J. H. Richardson. Adelphi. 198 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS study represents an attempt to measure the general application of national minimum wages to modern industrial conditions. The resume is not limited to one particular territory but presents the standards of advanced countries against the competition of countries with low standards. The writer is of the opinion that as basis of the wage system of each country national minimum wages should be fixed. These would constitute a standard below which no worker of ordinary ability should fall.

THE PROBLEM OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, *by Arthur B. Mays. Century. 416 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR MAYS devotes the first part of his volume to tracing the rise and fall of guild apprenticeship. Another section deals with the training of female industrial workers and the types of education needed, while the last chapters take up administrative policies and practices. Written by an authority in his field, it is a clear-cut presentation.

ECONOMIC HISTORY OF EUROPE IN MODERN TIMES, *by Melvin M. Knight, Harry Elmer Barnes and Felix Flugel. Houghton, Mifflin. 808 pp. Price $3.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is part II of an admirable manual now available to students of modern European economics. To compress so much material into a single volume restricts facts and sources. But as an account of the sequence of events involving changing forms of economic activity, including the social structure, producing again new problems in the fields of industry, agriculture and commerce, this volume should serve as a key to unlock a rich storehouse of human history.

THE MENTAL HEALTH OF THE CHILD, *by Douglas A. Thom. Harvard University Press. 46 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A PITY that more of our child health books do not deal with problems of youthful well-being in some such sane and simple fashion. Dr. Thom gives us a short and sensible talk on the mental state of the child, in which he puts the responsibility where it belongs—upon those adults with whom the child comes in contact. It is their task, one which requires careful cooperation between parent and teacher. In his opinion the grown-ups need special training first, since most people still go by conduct instead of motives and consequently the child bears the brunt of emotional conflicts. "Usually one hour spent with the parent will accomplish more than many spent exclusively with the child." Behavior, like charity, begins at home.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON PLAY AND RECREATION, *by Marguerita Williams. Russell Sage Foundation. 94 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A REVISED and expanded bibliography on recreation.

THE CAUSE AND CURE OF SPEECH DISORDERS, *by James Sonnett Greene, M.D., and Emilie J. Wells. Macmillan. 438 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN a clear way the problem and treatment of speech disorders find voice in these pages. The authors deal with the physical manifestations of stuttering, stammering, and abnormal speech defects based on their recognition of underlying causes. Hence these chapters discuss not only the methods used in treatment but the emotional maladjustments and tensions which produce them.

RUSSIA AFTER TEN YEARS—*Report of the American Trade Union Delegation to the Soviet Union. International Publishers. 96 pp. Price 50 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

THE American Trade Union Delegation, as guests of the All-Russian Trade Union Council, were the first labor group to visit Russia since the Revolution. Everything was open to them. They went where they wanted to go and saw what they wanted to see—from a factory to the office of the foreign minister. With the aid of picked assistants and experts they give us this account of trade unions, wage scales, conditions of employment, social insurance, in brief, a general account of the progress made in that country during the past ten years. The only request made by workers and officials was that they

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"tell the truth about Russia" on their return, and to us this brief report has an arresting ring.

MAKING CITIZENS OF THE MENTALLY LIMITED, *by Helen Davis Whipple. Public School Publishing Company. 374 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

TEACHERS who specialize in the field of subnormal children will find in this book the discussion of training which takes into account the special needs of each child in relation to subject matter and to conditions of daily life. An interesting and practical account tells of the special class, called Tunertown, where the methods followed met with effective results.

CREATIVE EDUCATION, *by Henry Fairfield Osborn. Scribner's. 360 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN this new volume a distinguished scientist and humanist has re-edited a selection of forty or fifty of his addresses, illuminating in the scope and depth of his ideas on education. His interest lies in arousing the individual to find satisfaction through creative effort and his words as well as his example should prove a stimulus to all those who follow the trends of vital thought.

THE COST OF LIVING IN NEW YORK CITY. *National Industrial Conference Board. 129 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"A UNIQUE study of the cost of maintaining a fair American standard of living for the industrial or office worker, in New York City and in each of its five boroughs."

THE ECONOMIC BASIS OF FAIR WAGES, *by Jacob D. Cox, Jr. Ronald Press. 139 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

A DESCRIPTION of wage theories by the president of the Cleveland Twist Drill, from the point of view of the president of the Cleveland Twist Drill. No more, no less.

PROSPERITY? *by Harry W. Laidler and Norman Thomas. League for Industrial Democracy. 286 pp. Price 50 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

WHAT IS COOPERATION? *by James Peter Warbasse. Vanguard. 170 pp. Price 50 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. McANDREW AND THE TEACHERS

(*Continued from page 746*)

legal authority. Mistakes he may have made, but they were mistakes of the head, not of the heart. He had the welfare of the teachers constantly at heart. He tried to obtain for them advances in salary. He never failed to praise their collective services or individual achievements; he never sought undue credit for himself. He demanded work and devotion to work, but he never demanded the impossible.

The much-discussed 100-per cent efficiency or correctness in arithmetic which he demanded, and in many schools seems to have secured, is a good illustration of the issue between him and some sincere critics of his policies. He thought that pupils could be taught to solve arithmetical problems correctly—and a correct solution is a 100-per cent solution. He advised patience and persistence on the part of the teachers, and urged the "try and try again" method where pupils failed to give correct solutions. Yet this position has been attacked savagely. What is there monstrous about it? Why should it drive teachers and pupils insane—as is alleged to have been the case? What is the difference, psychologically, between asking a pupil to work on a problem within his powers till he solves it, and giving him several problems to work on—failing in each to reach a correct solution? If a difference there be, it would seem in favor of the McAndrew idea. Pupils like success and are encouraged by it. On the other hand, failure depresses them and makes for apathy and self-distrust.

When Mr. McAndrew became convinced that the less intelligent pupils could never work out correct solutions, what did he do? He suggested the limiting of his plan to normal, average pupils. That was a common-sense suggestion assuredly, but his detractors have treated it as evidence of fraud and chicanery! McAndrew, they said, was fooling the public, and was willing to resort to trickery rather than acknowledge a mistake and abandon it!

There are some controversies between Mr. McAndrew and the teaching force which are too technical to analyze here. The fact to note is that Big Bill and his tools on the board of education, most of them weak and obscure nobodies, were not hostile to McAndrew because of the few reasons cited by discontented teachers, but because of totally different reasons—reasons that could not be avowed, such as his aversion to cheap politics, his firmness, his confidence in himself, his demand for efficiency. He was suspended and placed on trial by pothouse patriots, spoilsmen, buffoons; he was accused of disloyalty, pro-British propaganda, contempt for Revolutionary heroes of Irish or Polish nationality, close association with—O horrors!—members of the English Speaking Union, and various heretical utterances on such subjects as the flawless saintliness of George Washington and the desirability of truth and fact in school histories.

Mr. McAndrew's trial, to repeat, was a farce and an indecent exhibition. Yet the teachers, organized and unorganized, were said to long for his elimination. As a matter of fact, that grotesque trial has brought him support from many groups that had previously criticised him. The teachers, of course, have to think of their own jobs and have to reckon with a reckless, stupid or servile majority. Many of them were afraid to defend Mr. McAndrew. Others, no doubt, cherish petty grievances and choose to forget the vital and overshadowing issue at stake. It would be unjust, however, to interpret the silence of the teachers since the suspension or the opening of the McAndrew trial as deliberate *approval* of the fake charges, silly lies and crude inventions of his demagogical enemies.

Let me quote here from a report of the newly formed Public School Emergency committee, a body of high-minded, prominent and progressive men and women, on the so-called McAndrew trial:

> Fundamental Americanism is supposed to guarantee a speedy trial on clear charges by a free and impartial court. In the McAndrew case the school board, in the name of Americanism, exhibits a puppet "judge" presiding over a packed "court," whose decision has been announced in advance denying to the accused elementary rights that are the common heritage of all American citizens. A crew of political buccaneers, lost to all sense of sportsmanship, and fair play, has made a bonfire of the bill of rights while hoisting aloft the picture of George Washington to detract attention from the blow directed at the vitals of real Americanism.

Here is plain, blunt, honest speech, and the Chicago teachers who have, or think they have, suffered some hardship or unintentional injustice at the hands of Mr. McAndrew, an educator of national reputation whose knowledge of pedagogical and school problems is both deep and wise, and who as superintendent could not be charged with any ulterior purposes, should be advised humbly to ponder the deliberate judgment of the sincere and thoughtful, the courageous and independent, men and women who used that sort of speech—not often heard in Chicago in business or professional circles.

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Making and Showing a Campaign Movie

By PAUL S. BLISS

IF you don't say it with movies in this day and age you are omitting a very important department of publicity. The motion picture tells your story accurately, illustrates it, and makes it stick in the memory.

When you have your audience assembled, the curtains down, all eyes focused on the screen, you can be sure of fifteen minutes of undivided attention. There is nothing else to look at—and most of us like pictures. We may read only three words from a pamphlet laid on our desks, but we read every word that is thrown on the screen at a motion picture show. Ergo, say it with movies.

There is no excuse, financial or otherwise, for failure to use motion pictures. A one-reel motion picture—and don't make one any longer than that—can be made and shown to at least 30,000 persons, exclusive of theaters, for $1,500.

A maximum program, such as was put on in St. Louis in preparation for the Community Fund campaign of November, 1927, with five motion picture operators constantly busy over a period of two months, will cost $2,500. The St. Louis one-reeler, entitled Happy Dollars, was shown 545 times, exclusive of theaters, to crowds which ran from 25 to 1,000, but which conservatively averaged 100. Approximately 54,000 persons saw the film and each gave to it fifteen minutes of careful attention. It was also shown in a few of the smaller theaters. Some of its scenes were shown all week in one of the principal motion picture theaters.

Here are the costs: production and one print $940; seven extra prints $633; wages and carfare of operators and incidentals $750; rental of DeVry projectors $160. Total $2,483. The film was standard gauge, non-inflammable, 1,100 feet in length.

Incidentally, 100 pictures (stills) were taken as the agencies were visited, at the rate of only one dollar each. These stills supplied all photographic needs in campaign literature, advertising and newspapers.

Happy Dollars was made in the month of August. It was ready according to schedule and contract on September 1. Showings immediately began. During the latter part of August, four young men of good character and appearance, ranging from 18 to 22 years of age, were hired at a rate of $75 a month. Before they went to work, these youths were given an opportunity on their own time to learn their duties. No one of them had had any previous experience in running films. A professional operator was paid $5 to give an hour's lesson. The operators then practiced for two days, using an old film.

They were then required to come into the office of the publicity director and pass the following tests:

1. Put up screen properly
2. Connect up projector
3. Thread film
4. Show picture
5. Rewind film
6. Demonstrate procedure when film breaks while being run
7. Repair film (patching)
8. Oil and clean machine and test belt
9. Change the light bulb
10. Darken the room without using curtains

The boy that passed the highest test was put to work at once, and the others were put on at intervals of a day or two in the order in which they passed the test, according as the bookings made by the Speakers' Bureau required additional help. Within two weeks the four boys were working at full blast. A fifth operator was soon put on to relieve the strain.

Each boy was equipped with a projector, a 50-foot cord, a screen made out of oilcloth (the dull side was used after it had been given three coats of alabastine), pair of pliers, fuses, small hammer, wedge of wood (to be used in raising or lowering the projector), and extra lamp.

Thus equipped, the operator went to his assignment, using the street cars. Street cars have a habit of running regularly, and afford very few alibis for tardiness, such as: "ran out of gasoline," "carbureter trouble," and "couldn't find parking space." Also they are inexpensive to use.

One young man, however, who had his own automobile, was allowed to use it and was paid at the rate of seven cents a mile. He was given showings in the county and in places difficult to reach from the street car. He was also given continuous showings; for example, going the rounds of the fire stations. In this case he needed rewinders (which are almost too cumbersome to be carried by an operator afoot), in addition to his other necessary equipment, including patching kit.

Where foot operators were required to make successive showings, they were permitted to rewind the film within the projector. This, however, is somewhat hard on the film, wears the machine, and takes as much time as to show the film.

So far as possible, a speaker was provided who introduced the film and made a few running comments through it. This latter is desirable, but the film, of course, is self-explanatory. In approximately half of the St. Louis showings the film was shown with a speaker present.

Bookings should be made by the Speakers' Bureau. The bureau must be given authority to book showings in industrial plants without waiting for requests from industrial division workers. The tendency of the industrial group is to want the film held for the week of the campaign, but if this policy prevailed, it would mean that many plants would not see the film at all. At a conference with the industrial division chairman in which the problem was clearly laid before him, he was permitted to reserve a maximum of 15 to 20 showings in his largest factories during the campaign period, but the rest of his showings had to pre-

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cede the campaign dates. Maximum use of the films also entered into this decision.

The Speakers' Bureau secretary should be provided with a chart of such size that as it hangs upon the wall she can refer to it while talking at the telephone, rather than having to look through a list of cards to see whether a certain hour on a certain day is already taken. There should be one chart for each month. The days are numbered down the left-hand side with an inch of space for each day. The columns read: Morning, Noon, Afternoon, Evening, and Remarks. A part of the Remarks column reads: Showings Today and Total Attendance.

If some one asks for the film for "the 8th at noon," the secretary can run her eye along the "8" line to the noon column and tell immediately how many showings she has. If she has five operators and there are already five showings for noon clubs, she sees that she will have to suggest another date. This method of recording showings makes it not only simple for the Speakers' Bureau secretary and the operating group to keep the whole task before them, but it gives the publicity committee and campaign leaders a clear picture of what is being done—with opportunity to locate the weak spots.

This article is devoted principally to the showing of the film. Making it is another matter. A picture which shows the major types of work, perhaps stating the percentage of the dollar which goes to each part, which endeavors to get over either in titles or scenes some of the social work lessons which will occur to all—such as principles of family case work and proper child care, the danger of giving to beggars, need for character-building work—will be a useful part of the publicity campaign.

Be sure to have plenty of close-ups, for a smiling baby taken at six feet distance is worth infinitely more than a hundred babies taken 30 feet away. Take outdoor scenes only when the light is good. Take interiors, but be sure to have adequate artificial lighting.

Here are a few "don'ts":

Don't let the motion picture producer talk you into making more than one reel, no matter how much footage you have to discard.

Don't pay more than $1,000 for the completed production job which includes one print ready for showing. Use "safety" (non-inflammable) film.

Don't fail to have your projectors overhauled and if you rent projectors, be sure they are in good condition. In overhauling, be sure to put a new carrying handle on each machine—an old handle will surely break under the strain, and you may have a bill for a new projector.

Don't let an operator go out without an extra lamp bulb. Be sure the plane of the filament is at right angles to the line of projection.

Don't give an operator too many showings. He will not only use a crowded schedule as an alibi for tardiness, but will actually be late because he cannot help it, thus bringing down the wrath of some waiting group. As your showings increase add an operator, a new projector, another print, rather than try to overload operators.

Don't fail to check daily the electrical connections on projectors and cords and see that the operators keep the shutters clean, the films repaired, and the projectors oiled. Have 30-ampere fuses or cartridges to substitute for those of smaller amperage, so as to avoid all danger of blowing fuses during showings.

Don't let the operators tell you that it couldn't be shown because the room couldn't be darkened. Where light conditions are doubtful, arrangements should be made the day before for adequate darkening. This applies with special emphasis in industrial showings.

Don't use the same film two years in succession. Make a brand new film each year. People will always remember a film, or sections of it, that they have seen before, and rightfully resent it.

What Theme for the Movie?

HERE is the story told of the campaign moving picture of the 1928 Minneapolis Community Fund. Robert D. Stevenson, publicity secretary, reports 700 showings with an aggregate audience of 100,000. Inquiries have come from many cities for prints of the film; the Minneapolis Journal gave a picture page and an editorial page to it. In other words, it was a success. Curtain!

The film, Just Around the Corner, is divided into three distinct parts: Dependency, Health and Character Building. Four Horsemen are brought into the scenes of each picture in silhouette, representing Poverty, Evil, Sickness, and Death.

A great city with its tall buildings, shining lights and bridges sleeps under a seemingly calm exterior. Through the sky, riding swiftly, come the Four Horsemen, tramping down the weak, the sick, the helpless and the underprivileged.

SUB-TITLE: Outside are the voices of the city, clanging street cars, the cries of newsies. . . . Minneapolis shopping for happiness. Listen carefully and you will hear a deeper and more ominous note . . .

A mother, deserted, sits alone by an empty table with her two small children. The horseman, Poverty, rides swiftly through the room. A child is seen sobbing because his father is not coming back. The Family Welfare visitor enters and consoles the children, tells the mother that they have located the husband. The last scene is a reuniting of the husband and wife.

The work of the Visiting Nurses, Infant Welfare Society, Occupational Therapy Department of the Junior Board and summer camps are shown under the section of Health. These agencies beat down the advance of the Horsemen who gallop through the scenes, holding the thrill of the picture.

The last section, Character Building, is built in story form, following a family through its many misfortunes. It takes a boy, who has been a gangster, brings him under the influence of the settlement house, shows his mother as a chronic invalid, his father struck down by the fourth Horseman, shows the influence of the Boy Scouts, critical situations met in the family by the Children's Protective Society, and the final reuniting of the little family.

It shows a typical working girl under modern temptations and the influence which the Y. W. C. A. brings into her life. It finally shows the girl as a victim of one of life's greatest tragedies and the work in the maternity home, ending with a close-up of smiling, appealing babies.

FINAL SUB-TITLE: There is no end to this picture. Life is no parlor comedy—it is raw and bleeding. It is gentle and fine, it is horrible, it is wonderful.

In our hands the future of girls and boys, the happiness of the declining years of somebody's forgotten mother.

In our hands the hope of the sick, the blind, the despairing.

What a gripping, smashing, heart-stirring show it is . . . this life in Minneapolis, and the battle of the Four Horsemen . . . and the outcome depends on you!

OPEN YOUR HEART
COMMUNITY FUND CAMPAIGN
NOVEMBER 2-9

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET
Director, Community Council of St. Louis

Forestalling a Let-Down Period

AN interesting statement of practice in personnel policies for a social agency is contained in the report of the Smith Memorial Playhouses and Playgrounds, in congested districts of Philadelphia, submitted by Phoebe Hall Valentine, director, for the year 1927.

"We realize that personnel is very important and it is probably true that no type of organized activity reacts so quickly to the right quality of leadership, or slumps so dismally under a poor or indifferent one, as organized play.

"We make every effort to secure the best quality of people available. As a matter of fact, it is almost impossible to find people who have the type of training which fits them for our work. The combination of recreation, education and social work in one job is apparently unusual. It seems necessary, to a certain extent, to train our own workers.

"Many conditions, such as evening and holiday employment, are unfavorable. The noise and confusion of several hundred even fairly well organized children, is nerve racking at times. So it is almost unavoidable that certain periods of 'let down' in enthusiasm and interest will occur among the staff. We try to counteract this tendency by such means as we have knowledge of:

"Long week-ends monthly, enabling play leaders to have twelve additional vacation days.

"Frequent staff meetings are held, at which members are encouraged to contribute suggestions and criticisms, which we feel have two objectives—to make the programs more worth-while to the children and more interesting to the workers.

"A freedom and elasticity of organization, which, rather than trying to fit people into a program, changes the program to secure the special contribution that each staff worker can make most successfully.

"In an effort to relieve somewhat the strain of summer playground work, the trustees rented a log cabin on the bank of the Rancocas, in New Jersey, which has been for the use of the staff members wishing to spend their free periods or week-ends in the country. Its shaded quiet has given grateful relief from the noise and heat of South Philadelphia."

How many social agencies make similar compensation for the arduous nature of the work which their staff members are required to do?.

All Shell; No Nut

Amelia Sears of the United Charities of Chicago is in favor of economy in handling correspondence, and sends the following suggestion:

"I am interested in your column in The Survey.

"I noticed your comment—'Use Second Sheets.' Now these eliminations of waste both of material and effort are a hobby of mine.

"With the cry of all of us social agencies are making about poverty, I often feel that the vehicles in which our communications to each other are conveyed are too elaborate for the occupant. For instance, I will receive a letter of some minor significance—such as an appointment, recognition of receipt of letter, etc., with an elaborate address of, I grieve to say (not infrequently) not less than five lines:

Miss Amelia Sears,
Asst. General Superintendent,
United Charities of Chicago,
203 North Wabash Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.

"Therefore, I have inaugurated an intra-society blank, the form of which is shown below and the use of which I am extending to the trade—namely to all of the societies having membership in the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, the Juvenile Court, and other organizations with which we deal:

Memorandum
United Charities of Chicago
203 North Wabash Avenue
Chicago, Illinois
Telephone State 7160
To..... From..... Date.....
Subject.....

"The message is typed below this heading, and the signature written in, above the typed name of the signer."

A Short Cut in Copying Cards

Carter Taylor, director of the Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, Welfare Federation, reports an interesting experiment which was tried in copying the Welfare Federation's master list for a check on addresses by the post office.

"The post office said that if we would give them a copy of our file on cards or slips, they could give us a much more accurate check than if we used the old system of post cards. We have about 40,000 names in the master file," writes Mr. Taylor.

"Instead of copying the list on separate cards, we attached a device to the back of each typewriter which would hold a roll of paper similar to that used in adding machines. Our typists were able to average 360 names an hour for each typist. After the lists had been checked for errors, they were run through the cutting board and cut into uniform slips, one name to a slip.

"The devices for holding the continuous roll on the back of the typewriter were lent us free of charge. They fit quite ingeniously on the bar at the back of the machine that holds the tabulator stops, and are being marketed to retail at about $5 each. Our auditor estimated that this plan saved us about half the budgeted cost of copying our lists. The typists liked this plan much better than using separate cards. It was less fatiguing."

Making the Letterhead Work

Effective use of the back of its letterhead was made by the Salvation Army of Westchester County, New York, in its Christmas appeal. On the back of the letterhead were printed types of service rendered by the Salvation Army detailed according to the various corps. Social agencies might often make very effective use of the backs of their letterheads by printing lists of committees, maps of their cities which showed the location of various stations or branches, summary reports of service rendered, or photographs or drawings typifying the service of the organization. This use of the back of the letterhead would be especially worth while where the letter was used for appeal purposes as a supplement to the appeal made on the face of the letter.

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

Memphis Bound

WITH each meeting, the National Conference of Social Work breaks further away from old stereotypes. This year, at Memphis, May 2 to 9, the emphasis will be on round tables, frank discussions of workaday problems—the sort of rubbing of minds that produces fire.

The general sessions will be reduced by one. Monday night will be given over to Kindred Group dinners which will not have to end with a hurried lick of ice-cream in order to make an eight o'clock general meeting. The Child Welfare League of America, the A.A.O.F.S.W. (space is too scant to permit the name), the A.A.S.W. and the Committee on Publicity Methods have planned dinners. Others will follow. Take your pick—or roll your own party.

Board members, behold, have come into their own. They will have meetings during the conference at which directors, trustees and other patient partners in social work can compare notes on relations with staff, relations with the public, the raising of funds, and so forth. "Uncle Alec" Johnson will be on the job again as secretary-emeritus, conference philosopher, or father confessor to the unadjusted social worker. He will organize a dinner party of those who attended the Memphis conference in 1914—back in the days when complexes had a sinister connotation.

Speaking of Conferences

PENNSYLVANIA took a plunge this year (Scranton, February 8-11) and had a conference composed almost entirely of group discussions. The only general meetings were the evening sessions. The mornings started with institutes—ten of them, with an aggregate enrollment of 350. While they were in session, others attending the conference met in a kaffee klatsch—minus the kaffee. Here the subject was anybody's and at least two beautiful fights were enjoyed by all. From 11.30 A. M. to 1 P. M. were round tables—nine of them, and in the afternoon kindred group meetings and informal gatherings. Aaron M. Lopez of Erie was elected president for next year.

Going to Paris

WHY NOT? For the First International Conference of Social Work—the *first*, mind you. You'll be making history. National Conference headquarters, 277 East Long street, Columbus, Ohio, will gladly send you detailed information, or The Survey, 112 East 19 street, New York, will put you in touch with reliable travel agencies.

Research Fellowship Announced

THREE fellowships of $500 each, with clerical assistance, equipment and travel expenses, are offered by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union to qualified women candidates who wish to do social-economic research. The qualifications—college degree, training and so forth—are set forth in a bulletin published by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, 264 Boylston Street, Boston. Applications for the fellowships must be made before May 1.

Publicity Contest

TWO contests are announced by the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work. The first, for any organization or individual producing social work publicity, is for house organs, booklets, annual reports, printed novelties and similar material; closing date, April 21. The second is for better letters in social work publicity; closing date, April 16. Details of both contests may be had from the committee at 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York.

Joint Purchasing Saves Money

THE purchasing bureau of the Boston Council of Social Agencies showed a surplus of $236.98 for the past year, as compared to a deficit of $108.76 for the year before. The year's sales totaled $25,843, or a gain of more than $4,000 over 1926. The bureau handled twenty-seven annual reports for member agencies.

Girl Scouts Score Again

WHEN is an annual report not an annual report? When it is as distinctive and interesting as that of the Girl Scouts. The Girl Scout Trail, report for 1927, is a mark for every publicity social worker to shoot at from the red label on the envelope to the annotated statements of income and expense on the last pages. Here, at last, is an annual report that doesn't try to say too much.

They Win Prizes

OLD friends of The Survey and its readers appear in the list of short story prize-winners just announced by the Public Health Nurse. The first prize story, to be published in the March number of that magazine, is Hitable Anne, by Katharine Faville, who now divides her time between the Department of Nursing Education at Teachers' College and the Bureau of Educational Nursing of the New York A.I.C.P. A Greek Tragedy, by Dorothy Deming, formerly director of the V.N.A. of Holyoke, Mass., and now assistant editor of the Public Health Nurse, takes second prize, while the third is tied between stories by Rosamond Praeger, supervisor of child welfare nursing in the Syracuse, N. Y., Department of Health, and Luella M. Brion of San Diego, Cal. Honorable mention went to stories by Virginia Conklin of the Henry Street Visiting Nurse Service, New York City; Jennie McMaster, school nurse at Kirkwood, Mo.; Mrs. R. C. Macgowan of Hollywood, Cal.; Alice Evans Cruz, of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company at Stockton, Cal.; and Mrs. Ora Bossenberger of Chicago.

Miscellaneous

THE SECOND INTERNATIONAL Emigration and Immigration Conference will open in Havana on March 31. Sixty-four countries, including the United States, have been invited. President Coolidge has asked Congress for $5,000 for this country's expenses. Further details are contained in the January issue of The Interpreter, Foreign Language Information Service, 222 Fourth Avenue, New York.

THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION has appropriated $250,000 toward the two million dollar endowment fund of the New York School of Social Work. This gift will be made in five installments, the income from the first $50,000 to be made available this year.

THE DETROIT COMMUNITY FUND reports a saving of $25,000 in rentals and building maintenance for the first year of occupancy of the Community Fund Building, which houses twenty-seven social agencies.

HOW TO TEACH SONGS to a Group and How to Lead the Group in Singing were the subjects in a course given during January in Boston by the Massachusetts Girl Scouts.

WAUSEON, OHIO, is the location of the fifth rural hospital to be built with the help of the Commonwealth Fund of New York, in its program for improving the health and medical conditions in country districts.

EDWARD FISHER BROWN has resigned as executive secretary of the Child Welfare Committee of America, and will leave for Europe in April. He was formerly field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association.

DR. HERMAN BUNDESEN, president of the American Public Health Association, and for five years health commissioner of Chicago, is now health editor of the Chicago Daily News and contributes a daily column on Health—How to Keep It.

ELIZABETH STRINGER, executive secretary of the Visiting Nurse Association of Brooklyn, has been elected an associate member of the King's County Medical Society. This is the first time the executive of a nursing organization has been so honored in the United States, according to the Public Health Nurse.

DR. LINSLY R. WILLIAMS, managing director of the National Tuberculosis Association, has been elected president of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, succeeding Dr. James Alexander Miller, who resigned after serving as president since its beginning.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Circumventing the Professionals

TO THE EDITOR: For years I have wanted to establish a memorial to my mother. With a limited income, it must not exceed a certain cost, but by virtue of my mother's character and spirit, nothing but a 99 per cent perfect product would satisfy. The job of selection would have been difficult for the most inexperienced person, philanthropically disposed, but for one who was making a more or less constant study of methods of helping without hurting, it was a devil's own job.

It is almost axiomatic with us philanthropists and pseudo-philanthropists that the only folks you can't hurt by gifts are the very young and the very old. So I finally landed on what is commonly called an "Old Folks' Home" in the place of the nativity of myself, mother, grandmother, etc., viz., Lebanon, Ohio. As sweet a village as ever nestled between two rivers. Like Goldsmith's Auburn, it is quiet, agricultural, formerly a small college town, marked by refinements and a modest prosperity that made my plan at first appear quixotic and a superfluity.

This, however, was not to be an ordinary old folks' home, barn-like and institutional; it was to be a "home for gentlefolks," a small home for a selected group of refined folk such as mother used to habit with, and who, God willing, will soon be my contemporaries.

Seeking advice as to rules and regulations, limitations and privileges, I dropped in on Lillian Wald in her lovely summer home at Westport, Connecticut, for advice. Paul Kellogg was there. I outlined the plan. Kellogg, with his usual iconoclasm as to anything that concerns me or any other amateur in his chosen field, jeered at the plan, and Miss Wald smiled in a kindly but very superior manner. Kellogg injected, "Harmon, you are all out of date. Why don't you help folks in their own environment, their own homes? Institutions are out of the running"—etc., etc. My bubble was punctured. I had realized that there was a good deal of self-pride and egotism in the scheme, but did not know that it was as bad as all that, and hoped I could cover up its shortcomings by a real service.

Swallowing my disappointment, I began in another name and through most efficient friends to make monthly distributions of small sums. It was not a large amount, but it met a definite need within certain limitations. Living with the scheme, it became evident that it fell short with a good many people. In some cases it was the fault (or misfortune) of the individual, oftener the resentment of family toward an unwelcome guest in the house, occasionally due to certain limitations imposed by family, personal temperament, or income.

At any rate, we are opening a most charming home, called the Mollie Harmon Home for Gentlefolk, beautifully furnished and surrounded by trees and shrubbery. The guests are selected and invited, and though they had never retrograded, lost their spirit or their social position, have, or some of them have, suffered as only people of that kind can suffer. Mother's portrait, in her spreading ante-bellum skirts, smiles from above the dining-room mantel, and I know she is pleased.

It may not be scientific, but it is fun, and here is a secret not yet imparted even to the trustees. Each of those dear sweet friends who are without relatives will have a wee bit of an income of her own, just for spending money.

All this is being done without neglecting those outside who can be better cared for among friends. I have not disregarded Kellogg and Miss Wald, but I have certainly circumvented them and produced something that has taken a grip on the whole county, and will satisfy the emotions as well as the intelligence of those able and disposed to distibute their surplus, but who resent mechanizing the spirit of giving. The Harmon Foundation is to carry on the gospel of the perfect provision for our gentle seniors.

WILLIAM E. HARMON

New York

Prison Proceedings

TO THE EDITOR: I have just been advised by the secretary general of the International Prison Commission that there is now available an abridged edition in English of the Proceedings of the Ninth International Prison Congress, held in London in 1925, and attended by representatives of fifty-two governments. The subjects, the discussion, and the resolutions of the congress are contained in the English edition, and should be of considerable value to workers in this country. The volume consists of 426 pages, and can be ordered from Staempfli & Cie, Bern 9, Switzerland. The price is $2.50, plus postage of 35 cents, making a total of $2.85. The publishers request that the money be sent by Post Office order. I think it would be very helpful and well worth while if you could give some notice of this publication in one of your issues.

E. R. CASS

President, American Prison Association, New York

Chicago Teachers

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Yarros' article on Chicago conditions printed in The Survey of December 15 presents some facts but is inaccurate in giving the impression that Mr. McAndrew's administration offended only "ward bosses, relatives of incompetent teachers and weak members of the school board." Many excellent teachers opposed Mr. McAndrew's methods. The grounds of their opposition are here partially given:

1. Mr. McAndrew refused to obey board regulations as to calling meetings of the Teachers' Councils, which were in operation when he came to Chicago. After a struggle lasting several months a majority of the board let the new superintendent have his way, and the old councils were abolished. Thus an opportunity for intelligent contact between teachers and superintendent was abolished. Teachers resented the high-handed methods of a new administrator who refused to watch the councils in operation. They resented perhaps more the refusal of this new administrator to obey a board rule.

2. Lines of contact were further destroyed (a) by Mr. McAndrew's failure to continue the holding of professional meetings inaugurated by Mrs. Young; and (b) again by a new policy whereby teacher communications on school topics were to go not directly to the superintendent as had been the custom, but were to be relayed up by a hierarchy of subordinate officials, if each relay in turn felt the matter sufficiently important. Letters from a large woman's organization found this procedure applied to letters from a president or committee chairman.

3. Mr. McAndrew prevailed upon the board to pass and operate a regulation as to retirement which was not in conformity with the existent state law. The latter provided for retirement in 1926 of teachers of 75 years and of others in

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the years following, so that in 1930 those of 70 years would retire and each year thereafter. By the McAndrew regulation all teachers of 70 and over were immediately retired on half pay with less than a month's notice though no inefficiency was proved in any case. Chicago teachers do not object to retirement at 70 if carried on in conformity with the state tenure law. If that law can be evaded on the question of age, it can be evaded on other grounds and no real tenure exists.

4. Effective teaching in the big city schools suffers today from the vast amount of clerical work involved. This so fatigues teachers that the conduct of classes is definitely injured. Mr. McAndrew increased these clerical duties by added reports and standardized tests. A mathematics teacher reports that the total work involved in checking up on required sets of such tests and making out report cards necessitated the copying of the astounding total of 8,033 items.

The real objection of many teachers to these tests was that nothing constructive came from their use.

5. Space forbids my referring to the testimony of dozens of principals and teachers in the present board investigation, but enough has been given to show why teacher morale suffered greatly under Mr. McAndrew.

MARIAN C. LYONS

Ex-President, Chicago Local No. 3,
American Federation of Teachers

From a Prairie Reader

TO THE EDITOR: For nearly a year I have read your magazine. Much of it is very new to me, living as I do out here amid Kansas prairies and wheat fields with the horizon ever miles and miles away, and the isolation conducive to untrammeled private thinking.

The purpose of The Survey, as I see it, is to increase the liberty and true happiness of mankind and *scientifically* solve its multiplex problems. But what puzzles me is that your contributors confine themselves so largely to the science of the material, or the earthly spiritual, and do not rise to the heavenly spiritual. How seldom, almost never, have I seen a reference to Jesus Christ or the Holy Spirit and their marvelous scientific teachings and inspiration of the soul. Those master teachers and helpers who never make mistakes put that into the human heart that turns a log-hut into a palace, turns sadness to song, and makes even the heaviest loads bearable.

Nor do they neglect the material. The loaves and fishes, though few, are multiplied until all the multitude of *bodies* were *filled*—yes and twelve baskets of fragments left over. How? I don't know—do you? Either Jesus Christ is what he claimed to be, or else the basest fraud ever perpetrated on a suffering humanity. *If true,* He must be scientific to the highest degree. The Son of God does not make mistakes. How about more of Him and His Spirit in Survey articles?

Wetmore, Kansas F. A. COGSWELL, M.D.

Survey Associates Invited

TO THE EDITOR: Any Survey Associate would be welcome at the place depicted on the other side of this card (more attractive looking in summer—this is not up-to-date either). The white cottage in mid-background is the farmsteading. Leonora and Arthur St. John live to right, out of the picture.

Glenyards, Bonnybridge, Scotland A. ST. JOHN

THE CHEST AND SOCIAL WORK

(*Continued from page* 750)

of direct participation in such work upon which any true understanding of it must depend.

What the chests have actually achieved is a question that cannot yet be satisfactorily answered, the necessary data not being available. So far as finances are concerned, they have undoubtedly in most cases if not in all increased the amount of money raised in donations. At least they have done so at the start. On the other hand they must, it would seem, have very much reduced the amount given for endowment by the deduction from the amount apportioned to each agency of the income from endowment which such agency may have received—thus rendering endowment of any individual agency ineffective. The chests seem also to have reduced the amount received by social agencies in fees and dues from their beneficiaries—normally a very large amount. They have at the same time, through their extensive advertisement of the great sums available for assistance and relief, and through the increased levy upon the public in providing the money for that purpose, considerably increased the willingness of people to apply for charitable help and so added to the burden to be borne. How the financial balance stands is still unknown, though there is well-informed opinion to the effect that charity organization societies are worse off with the chest than without it. The same is probably true of most relief agencies.

In the administration of their trust the chests have put an end to some of the less valuable organizations. The same is true of some of the more valuable ones, if the case of the Family Service Society of Columbus, Ohio, is a fair example. They have undoubtedly sometimes improved administration and upon the other hand have sometimes interfered in details of organization and of personnel in a way that has, rightly or wrongly, been felt by some of the social workers to be intolerable. They are thought by some good judges to have a tendency to underestimate those intangible values which are the most important. Upon the whole their tendency, through standardization, the limitation of the best and elimination of the worst, and the natural repugnance of financial and vested interests toward new and untried things, seems to be toward mediocrity.

MR. NORTON says that perhaps the greatest effort of the chest has been the attempt to standardize statistical information and to pool the knowledge gathered in many communities in the central office of the Association of Community Chests and Councils. Out of this collaboration, he says, "there will come eventually information for exact and scientific measuring that will throw a great light on the real usefulness of a multitude of now doubtful work processes." There can be no truly efficient science of social work, he says, until such a system is established.

The service thus outlined is a great and necessary one. Its importance has always been recognized in social work. Social agencies are constantly studying their own methods and ascertaining as accurately as possible the cost and the results of each and constantly seeking for methods more economical and more effective. Many of their studies are of an intensive character as, for instance, that carried on in the Juvenile Courts of Chicago and Boston by Dr. Healy and Dr. Bronner, the results of which, as published by them, have been translated into many languages and form part of the necessary basis for sound conclusions as to the best methods of dealing with young people of all classes. Similar intensive studies form a part of the routine of every first-rate hospital and of many other agencies. The national organizations in the various branches of social work have made many studies of this sort —witness those conducted at the International Y.M.C.A. College at Springfield, Massachusetts, by Dr. Luther Gulick, whose conclusions have been an inspiration not only to directors of play and athletics but to educators. Other studies of a more extensive and inclusive nature are those in which the experience of hundreds of different communities is brought together in order that their results may be compared and studied by experts of national standing and that sound practical deductions may be drawn from them—as for instance the studies of the city and county park systems of this country, of camps, and of rural recreation by the Playground and

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Recreation Association of America.

Measurement is of great value in social work and should probably be carried much further than it has been. In this matter the chests can make and indeed have made a useful contribution through studies of financial methods and results. Finance is their special subject. But for the Association of Community Chests and Councils to undertake to standardize the statistical information gathered from all over the country in all the different branches of social work is a very different matter. The studies that are constantly being made in the care of the sick, in case work of all kinds, in friendly visiting, in relief giving, in the treatment of wayward children, in the best forms of play and games, and in the thousand other subjects dealt with in the many varieties of social work are at present brought together by national organizations especially conversant with each subject. Whether a chest committee made up chiefly of men selected for their ability in raising money, whose knowledge of social work is incidental, would be especially adapted to pass upon this great variety of subjects seems more than doubtful. It is true that such a committee could employ experts upon each subject dealt with. But the question is whether these experts do not serve to better advantage each working, as at present, under some organization especially dedicated to and interested in his special subject.

And how is it about "exact and scientific measuring?" Those who have studied social work thus far have not yet succeeded, as regards its more important problems, in securing information susceptible of that sort of treatment.

The important results of social work, in accordance with which the value of its methods must mainly be assessed, are in the development of courage, hope, faith, loyalty—the fullness and nobility of life. What is the scale upon which these results can be exactly measured? What is the common unit of their size? It is true they are real results and the values which they represent are real—the most real things there are. As such they have a definite importance. But those who are habitually dealing with them have not yet ventured to predict their exact measurement and valuation. Personally I suspect that for a full, exact and scientific report upon the subject we must await the Day of Judgment.

As to "work-processes" and the standardization of salaries, Dr. Alfred Worcester, the pioneer in modern nursing, has said: "A woman who cannot give a patient a glass of water in a way to make him better is not a nurse." What price devotion? Should it be paid for by the hour or by the piece—so much a glass? It is true that in a large institution salaries, including those of ministering angels, must to some extent be standardized. That is an evil apparently inseparable from large organization. But do not let us deceive ourselves by talk about precision. To suppose that in the case of nursing or any other important service we know or are capable of exactly assessing or appreciating its higher values is to show ourselves unfit to deal with it.

But although, as applied to the values and results of social work, talk of precise measurement has no meaning, there is yet significance in the fact that such measurement is promised. Such a promise suggests setting a special value upon what can be seen and measured as against that which is immeasurably and must of necessity remain unseen—an emphasis upon numbers, upon bricks and mortar and material appliances, as opposed to finer methods and to real, because spiritual, results—to everything, in fact, that matters.

Mr. Norton in his conclusion says that to use our surplus wealth wisely, "to provide other channels than those of extravagance, to make it productive not only for consumption products but also for so-called higher things of life is the great challenge of our times." Why the "so-called" higher things of life? Is it to intimate that no such things exist? And if the chest marks them as "so-called" can it become a leader in their service?

WHAT ARE THE FIELDS OF JEWISH SOCIAL WORK? "(3) *Family Case Work. . . The case worker is the 'family physician' in a social sense and aims to help people live a wholesome and normal life . . . and to guide them through the maze of social adjustment. . .*" *(See Pamphlet, p. 5.)*

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Elections and Appointments

HAROLD L. BACHE, partner in the banking firm of J. S. Bache & Co., elected treasurer Big Brother and Big Sister Federation, Inc. The Federation has moved to 425 Fourth Ave. (at 29th St.) New York City.

MARY BAILEY appointed executive secretary Rolling Fork, Miss., Chapter, A. R. C.

LOUISE BARKER, formerly psychologist Women's Protective Assn., Cleveland, now on staff Taylor Foundation Child Guidance clinic, Colorado Springs.

ELIZABETH BEALER, formerly Girl Scout Director in Portland, O., now regional director for Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Colorado, and Wyoming, with headquarters at Kansas City.

SARAH LOUISE BEELER, formerly with Hamilton, O., Bureau of Social Work, now case worker, Cleveland Children's Bureau.

ALIDA J. BIGELOW, formerly executive secretary, East Chicago, Ind., Chapter A. R. C. now field representative, A. R. C., for southern Indiana.

LOIS BLAKELY now mental health worker, Minneapolis Visiting Nurse Association.

JESSIE BOYD appointed executive secretary Belzoni, Miss., Chapter, A. R. C.

CARL A. BRYAN, now educational director, Chicago Council, Boy Scouts of America.

DR. WALTER M. BURNET appointed secretary, Social Hygiene Committee, New York Tuberculosis and Health Association.

ROSE BUTLER, now director Visiting Nurse Association, Holyoke, Mass.

FLORENCE CAMERON, formerly hospital social worker, U. S. Naval Hospital, San Diego, now case worker on staff of San Diego Chapter, A. R. C.

ROWENA CLARK appointed executive secretary, Indianola, Miss., Chapter, A. R. C.

HELEN H. CLARKE now assistant to educational secretary, Mass. Tuberculosis League.

LELIA CLEM now assistant secretary, Family Service Bureau, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

EDITH N. COOK, formerly psychiatric social worker in regional office, U. S. Veterans' Bureau, San Francisco, now director of Red Cross Service, U. S. Veterans' Hospital, American Lake, Wash., succeeding Mrs. Evelyn McGill, resigned.

ELIZABETH A. COOLEY, formerly field representative, A. R. C., in Florida, now director, Dade Co. Welfare Board, Miami.

CATHLENA A. COOPER, formerly director of education, Syracuse Bureau of Nursing, as director Syracuse Visiting Nurse Assoc.

MARGARET B. CORNELL, formerly chapter correspondent, Nat. Hqs., A. R. C., now on staff of Welfare department, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.

CLARIBEL DAVIS, formerly case worker with Associated Charities, Cincinnati, now executive secretary. Mayersville, Miss., Chapter, A.R.C.

MARY MORROW DERBY, now psychologist, Women's Protective Assoc., Cleveland.

C. S. DONNELLY, now superintendent Boys' and Girls' Aid Society, Los Angeles County, and Mrs. Donnelly as assistant superintendent.

DR. STEPHEN A. DOUGLASS, formerly director, Cattaraugus County Health Demonstration, New York State, now medical field secretary, National Tuberculosis Association, giving part time to American Public Health Association.

SARAH EVARTS, formerly with Judge Baker Foundation, now on staff Taylor Foundation Child Guidance Clinic, Colorado Springs.

EMMA S. FISK, formerly recreation assistant, Letterman General Hospital, San Francisco, now director of Red Cross service, U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Walla Walla, Wash.

GEORGIA FRANCE appointed executive secretary Kennett, Mo., Chapter, A.R.C.

LOUISE WALLACE FRYE, formerly executive secretary, Charlotte, N. C., now field representative for South Carolina.

J. P. HARDY, formerly secretary of the Fargo, N. D., Chamber of Commerce, now field representative, A.R.C., for North Dakota.

FRANCIS HARSHMAN, formerly with Fort Wayne Family Service Bureau, now executive secretary Hospital and Home Service Association.

GERTRUDE S. HASBROUCK, organizer of infant hygiene classes, Wisconsin State Board of Health, now with the Community Health Council, Cleveland.

MILDRED HECKER, now tuberculosis supervisor, Public Health Nursing Association, Woonsocket, R. I.

FRANCIS INGRAM, head resident of Neighborhood House, Louisville, appointed chairman of Kentucky Welfare Commission, to investigate child welfare situation in the state, preliminary to possible legislative action.

FREDERICK C. HELBING appointed superintendent House of Refuge, Randall's Island, N. Y., succeeding Col. Edward Barber, resigned.

MARY ALICE JONES, now director of department of children's work, International Council of Religious Education.

J. H. KIRKPATRICK now secretary, Santa Rosa, Cal., Community Chest, succeeding Mark Lee, resigned.

ALICE LAMOREAUX now assistant occupational therapist, Cleveland Society for the Blind.

AMELIA LANXON, now supervisor, county nursing service, Public Health Nursing Association, Pittsburgh, Pa.

KATHERINE R. LEWIS, formerly editor of the

(*Continued on page 797*)

LITERATURE

CHILD HEALTH IN SMALL COMMUNITIES—Bulletins describing the Commonwealth Fund child health demonstrations in small cities and rural counties. No 2, Marion County, Ore. No. 4, General review of four demonstrations. No. 5, Fargo, N. D. No. 6, Rutherford County, Tenn. Mailed free on application to Director of Publications, Room 1648, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York.

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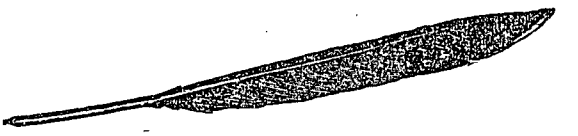

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—18-20 E. Division St., Chicago, Ill. Miss Helen Beckley, Executive Secretary.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR OLD AGE SECURITY—Aim: To promote through legislation adequate provisions for the dependent aged in the United States. Bishop Francis J. McConnell, president. A. Epstein, executive secretary, 104 Fifth Ave., New York City.

AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE, INC.—Margaret Sanger, President, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Purpose: To teach the need for birth control to prevent destitution, disease and social deterioration; to amend laws adverse to birth control; to render safe, reliable contraceptive information accessible to all married persons. Annual membership, $2.00 to $500.00. Birth Control Review (monthly) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics; office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 101 East 20th St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave New York. To provide a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education, to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN WOMEN'S HOSPITALS (O.S.)—(Organized, 1917)—637 Madison Avenue, New York. Chairman, Esther Lovejoy, M.D.; Treasurer, Mathilda K. Wallin, M.D. Conducts hospitals and food stations for refugees in Greece, and medical centers in Macedonia and Western Thrace. Continuing assistance to medical work in France, Serbia, Russia and Japan.

ASSOCIATED GUIDANCE BUREAU, INC.—16 East 53rd Street, New York. Telephone: Plaza 9512. A non-sectarian, non-philanthropic child guidance bureau, employing highest social work standards. Supplies, trains, and supervises carefully selected governesses, tutors, companions, and play leaders. Conducts psychiatric nurses registry. For information address Jess Perlman, Director.

THE BOY CONSERVATION BUREAU—90 West Broadway. Suggests all-the-year-round Home Schools for needy boys. Tel. Walker 0313. E. W. Watkins, Exec. Sec'y.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. To secure home life for normal dependent children in preference to institutions; to secure Mothers' Allowance laws in states having none; to urge adequate appropriations for home aid; to promote proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; to aid in the enforcement of these laws. States Council of Committee comprises volunteer representatives in practically every state. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary President; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward Fisher Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22nd Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal order and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE, INCORPORATED—Dobbs-Ferry-on-Hudson, New York. A national, non-sectarian training school scientifically equipped for the study, education and development of problem boys and girls, on commitment and by private arrangement—ages 7 to 16. Supported largely by voluntary contributions. For further information address Leon C. Faulkner, Managing Director.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—105 East 22d St., New York. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary. Composed of 23 Protestant national women's mission boards of the United States and Canada. Purpose: To unify effort by consultation and cooperation in action.
- Work among Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer service for college students, Laura H. Parker, Executive Supervisor.
- Religious Work directors in Government Indian Schools.
- Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans.

EYE SIGHT CONSERVATION COUNCIL OF AMERICA—L. W. Wallace, President; Guy A. Henry, General-Director, Times Bldg., New York. Conducts a national educational campaign to promote eye hygiene. Urges correction of eye defects, protection against hazards, proper lighting. Comprehensive publications—lantern slides—lecture material. Cooperation of social agencies invited.

Principles and Practice

DR. SAMUEL JOHNSON, purveyor of epigrams to the ages, once said, "Sir, are you so grossly ignorant of human nature as not to know that a man may be very sincere in good principle without having good practice?"

It is no mean achievement, in a profession requiring as much tact as does social work, to make practice conform to principle. The social worker meets countless situations where the two seem to be in conflict — where carefully learned principles do not apply. The tyro then clings to the letter of the principle, the professional to the spirit. For good practice is never rule-of-thumb. It is a variable, borne of constantly changing problems. A professional is one who knows, from his background as well as from his text-book, where principle and practice meet.

The organizations listed in these pages are engaged in practicing good principles. Each, in its field, has found the happy meeting ground.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Sec's; 105 E. 22nd St., N. Y. C.
- Dept. of Research and Education, Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
- Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W. M. Tippy, Sec'y; International Justice and Goodwill; Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y; Church and Race Relations: Dr. G. E. Haynes, Sec'y.

GIRLS FRIENDLY SOCIETY IN AMERICA—15 East 40th Street, New York. Girls and women working together to uphold Christian standards of daily living in the home, in the business world, and in the community. Numbers nearly 60,000, with branches in 44 states.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro youth for community service. Collegiate work in Education, Agriculture, Home Economics, Business, Library Science, Building Construction, and Summer School. Publishes the "Southern Workman." Free material concerning the Negro and race relations James E. Gregg, principal.

THE LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT—A national organization 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Dr. George W. Kirchwey, Chairman; Vivian Pierce, Executive Secretary. Organized to abolish capital punishment in every state and in the District of Columbia. Annual membership $1, $5, $10, and $100, including monthly Bulletin.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, gneeral secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Wiley H. Swift, acting general secretary, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. To improve child labor legislation; to conduct investigation in local communities; to advise on administration; to furnish information Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthly publication, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est, 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Algonquin) Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in cooperation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC. — Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr George K. Pratt, assistant medical director, Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant, Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Field: mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, delinquency, dependency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, child guidance, industry, social work, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $1.00 a year.

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NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President. Mrs. A. C. Watkins, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. To develop cooperation between home and school, and an informed public opinion which will secure highest advantages for all children.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, Managing Director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, Associate Director; B. Franklin Rover, M.D., Medical Director; Eleanor P. Brown, Secretary, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. Studies scientific advances in medical and pedagogical knowledge and disseminates practical information as to ways of preventing blindness and conserving sight. Literature, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, charts and co-operation in sight-saving projects available on request.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Sherman C. Kingsley, president, Chicago, Ill.; Howard R. Knight, sec'y, 277 E. Long St., Columbus, Ohio. The conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Memphis, Tenn., May 2nd-9th, 1928. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—Mrs. Joseph E. Friend, President; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, Executive Secretary, 2109 Broadway, New York City. Program covers twelve departments in religious, educational, civic and legislative work, peace and social service. Official publication: "The Jewish Woman."

Department of Immigrant Aid and Immigrant Education, 799 Broadway, New York City. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls. Maintains Bureau of International Service. Monthly bulletin, "The Immigrant." Florina Lasker, Chairman; Cecilia Razovsky, Secretary.

Department of Farm and Rural Work, Mrs. Elmer Eckhouse, Chairman, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City. Program of Education, recreation, religious instruction and social service work for rural communities. Bulletin: "The Rural Voice."

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Theobald Smith, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and program for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $8.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL HEALTH CIRCLE FOR COLORED PEOPLE, Inc.—370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Col. Theodore Roosevelt, Honorary President; Dr. Jesse E. Mooreland, Pres.; Dr. George C. Booth, Treasurer; Miss Belle Davis, Executive Secretary.

To organize public opinion and support for health work among colored people.
To create and stimulate health consciousness and responsibility among the colored people in their own health problems.
To recruit, help educate and place young colored women in public health work.
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NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Miss Rose Schneiderman, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of protective legislation. Information given.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN—370 Seventh Ave., N. Y. C. Clearing house for 35 women's organizations. Valeria H. Parker, M.D., President.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 17 Madison Ave., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Ave., New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. To bring to every boy and girl and citizen of America an adequate opportunity for wholesome, happy play and recreation. Playgrounds, community centers, swimming pools, athletics, music, drama, camping, home play, are all means to this end.

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TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, principal; W. H. Carter, treasurer; A. L. Holsey, secretary, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—a cooperative Educational Agency for the promotion of Adult Education among Industrial Workers. 476 West 24th Street, New York City. Spencer Miller, Jr., Secretary.

(*Continued from page 794*)

Women's Department, Washington "Star," now a writer on the public information staff, National Headquarters, A.R.C.

EMMA LUNBERG, Child Welfare League of America, is chairman of the Census Committee, American Association of Social Workers. Other members of the committee are Dr. Emma Winslow and Pierce Williams.

VICTOR R. MANNING, formerly special representative Playground and Recreation Association of America, now extension secretary, American Association for Organizing Family Social Work.

LT. LILLIAN MARKLAND, formerly nursery supervisor, Salvation Army, Cleveland, now with Cincinnati Salvation Army.

JOHN T. MCMULLEN now liaison representative, A.R.C., at Nashville, succeeding P. E. Moise, transferred.

P. E. MOISE, formerly liaison representative and field director, A.R.C., at Atlanta, transferred to Philadelphia, succeeding John F. Tucker, resigned.

HELEN A. MONTEGRIFFO as superintendent of El Retire, school for girls near Los Angeles, succeeding Alma Holzschuh (see The Survey for Oct. 15, 1927, p. 83).

DR. BRADFORD J. MURPHEY, formerly with Judge Baker Foundation, now director of Taylor Foundation Child Guidance Clinic, Colorado Springs.

DOROTHY MEYERS, formerly statistical assistant, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, now special agent with U. S. Children's Bureau, engaged on study being made in Philadelphia.

HELEN L. NICHOLS, formerly field secretary, Camp Fire Girls of Cleveland, now secretary Betsy Mills Club, Marietta, O.

CLARA J. NOLAN, now secretary of Wilkes Barre Y.W.C.A., succeeding Frances N. Rogers (not Frances N. Culver, as announced previously.

STELLA E. PACKARD appointed relief secretary, New York Prison Association, headquarters in New York City.

MABEL J. RUE, formerly with Cattaraugus County Health Demonstration, New York state, now educational director, St. Louis Visiting Nurse Association.

E. BURBANK SAUL, formerly with the health demonstration staff, A.R.C., at Murfreesboro, Tenn., and Woodstock, Vt., now field representative A.R.C. for western Tennessee.

A. E. SEALS, social worker at Hering House (Booker T. Washington Community Service), South Bend, Ind., now director, succeeding R. A. B. Crump, resigned.

GAY SHEPPERSON, formerly with Virginia State Board of Public Welfare, now director of Division of Children and Institutions, Georgia State Board of Public Welfare.

MARGARET SKINNER and Frances Stevenson now assistant secretaries, Montgomery, Ala., Chapter, A.R.C.

A. STEPHEN STEPANIAN now publicity representative, Richmond Community Fund.

MILDRED STOCKING, formerly with St. Louis Provident Association, now executive secretary, A.R.C., for Lee and St. Francis Counties, Ark.

JOSEPHINE M. STRONG, formerly with Family Service Bureau, York, Pa., now with Social Welfare League, Reading, Pa.

FLORENCE TAYLOR (Mrs. Graham R.) appointed assistant executive secretary, American Association of Social Workers, succeeding Henrietta Lund.

HELEN TAYLOR, formerly with the Children's Bureau of Philadelphia, now on staff Virginia State Department of Public Welfare as case consultant.

LILLIAN TROUT appointed county overseer of the poor, Cedar Rapids, Ia., succeeding Katherine Ewing, resigned.

GRACE TUCKER, for the past six years with A.R.C. in field work and disaster relief and in national headquarters, now executive secretary, Council of Social Agencies, Pasadena.

OLIVE WHEELER, publicity secretary, Boston, Y.W.C.A., succeeding Norma Dill.

DR. W. BERAN WOLFE, psychiatrist at mental hygiene clinics of Mount Sinai and Beth Israel Hospitals, New York City, appointed psychiatrist to Highland Manor School, Tarrytown-on-Hudson, N. Y.

F. WALDO ZIEGLER now publicity secretary Miami Community Chest.

Resignations and Leaves

RUTH BAKER on brief leave from New York A.E.C.P., to recuperate from illness.

R. A. B. CRUMP, director of Booker T. Washington Community Service, South Bend, Ind., resigned.

ROBERT DAVIDS, resigned as director of department of field administration, International Council of Religious Education.

JOHN K. DOAN, resigned as Boy Scout Commissioner, Cleveland, to enter private business.

KATHERINE EWING resigned as general superintendent, Social Welfare League of Cedar Rapids, Ia., and county overseer of the poor, because of illness.

HELEN M. IRELAND, on staff of Conn. Society for Mental Hygiene for seven years as social worker and executive, resigned and retired from social work.

HENRIETTA LUND, assistant executive secretary, American Association of Social Workers, on indefinite leave, because of illness in family.

EVELYN MCGILL, director of Red Cross Service, U. S. Veterans' Hospital, American Lake, Wash., resigned because of illness in family.

MARJORIE READ, for the past two and a half years in charge of Red Cross service at U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Walla Walla, Wash., resigned.

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WANTED: Head worker for vacation home open middle of June to beginning of September. Must have camp experience, and skill in directing activities of adults and children. Write giving full details and salary expected. 6061 SURVEY.

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